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ABSTRACT

Motivation and aspiration for a better life can be examined in relation to media behavior of random samples of the blacks, Chicanos, whites, and affluent whites in Lubbock, Texas. In such a study, no significant difference in motivation and aspiration, as influenced by media, can be found among ethnic and other groups. This phenomenon is likely the result of the ubiquitous availability of electronic and print media to all levels of society. These results throw doubt on the traditional McClelland contention that minority groups generally lack motivation. The findings also show no significant difference between the sexes' aspirations and motivations for work toward desired goals. Subjects demonstrated such behavior in tests of their viewing, listening, and reading; their interpersonal communication; their communication topics; their role-reversal playing for media control; their knowledge about governmental agencies; and their attitudes toward various local issues. Very few significant differences appeared among ethnic groups; however, more women than men disliked violent and pornographic television programs. (CH)

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A Preliminary Report
On
Motivation and Communications Patterns
Of The Black, Chicano, White, and Affluent White
In a Typical Southwest U. S. City

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ABSTRACT

Motivation and aspiration in relation to media behavior of random samples of the blacks, Chicanos, whites, and affluent whites in a typical Southwest U. S. city were examined. Probably because of the ubiquitous availability of electronic media, and the universal accessibility of print media, no significant difference in motivation and aspiration, as influenced by media, was found among ethnic and SES groups. The result was to throw doubt on McClelland's contention that the minorities lack motivation. No significant sex difference was found in aspiration and motivation, either.

Also minutely examined was respondents' communication behavior in terms of viewing -listening-reading; interpersonal communication, communication topics, role-playing as if in charge of media, knowledge about governmental agencies, and attitudes toward various local issues. Generally, very few significant differences were found among ethnic groups; sex difference was found, among others, in viewing of violence and pornographic movies and television programs.

Beginning in the late 1960's, racial tension exploded throughout the United States. Many attributed the explosions to failure of communications, in addition to many other factors, for example, lack of job opportunity, education and decent housing. The racial conflict of the last few years might be characterized as the manifestation of the "have-not" class's demands for the right to the pursuit of happiness and freedom from poverty. Many envisaged an apparent solution would be to give the "have-not" class what they desperately needed. Numerous federal and state programs on a historically unprecedented scale, such as the Job Training Corps, Upward Bound, Headstart, and so on, were introduced. As we found to our dismay, few of the programs aimed at improving the lot of the poverty-stricken people were an unqualified success, and the panacea for curing poverty and reducing racial tension remained as elusive as ever.

The failure of many programs can be attributed to the failure to understand the very nature of poverty. Poverty has its own culture, and also a vicious circle of its own. All the federal and state programs were an imposition, imposing the predominantly WASPish values and ethics upon the poor, the marginal, and the poorly educated. Therefore, it was difficult, if not impossible, for the poor to accept what came to them from outside their own culture. It seems necessary first of all to determine what aspirations and expectations the poor may have, and to devise ways and means of helping them reach their objectives accordingly. The first task, instead of imposing the prevalent norms of the majority, should be a minute examination of aspirations in order

to help set up goals for the poor, and motivate them toward their fulfillment. Motivation, an innate state that energizes, activates, or moves, and that directs or channels behavior toward goals (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 239), is a many-faceted mental state: the desire to better one's lot, the drive to achieve a particular goal, and the inclination to compete; all these require in a great measure, and are affected by, communications, in terms of information-seeking, accessibility to information, comprehension and utilization of information. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that the pattern of communicative behavior determines general behavior and motivation, which in turn determines information-seeking behavior. As it is clear, only one aspect of motivation was involved, i.e., approach. The other aspect, avoidance, as defined by McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell, (1953, p. 75), was not treated here. Motivation must be defined here as a drive for attainable goals, rather than simply a state of desire. That seems to be where the basic problem lies: desire alone cannot construe, nor should it be regarded as, motivation, if it is not accompanied by an incessant drive for accomplishment or fulfillment.

The poor, the marginal, and the underprivileged are not necessarily limited to the ethnic minorities, but the ethnic minorities do have a disproportionately large number living below the poverty level. The poor have their own culture (Kahn, 1968); the black and the Chicano have distinctive sub-cultures of their own, which are only somewhat similar, but not identical to, what is generally known as American culture. But it stands to reason that so far as their attitudes toward basic needs are concerned, there should be no radical differences, i.e.,

every family desires better housing, a better environment, and better education for its children. There is, however, an anticipated difference in terms of higher expectations and aspirations, as influenced and moulded by communication behavior, which is the principal problem area to be examined.

Design

The poor usually converge in certain areas, known as ghettoes or barrios, where the socio-economic index is generally low, regardless of the color of the residents. With a proportion of the poor, black, and Chicano similar to most cities throughout the southwest United States, Lubbock, Texas, seems to be a typical city for ethnic studies of this nature; there are 7.6% blacks, 13.6% Chicanos, and 78.12% whites, with others making up 0.68% (USDC, 1971). To explore communication patterns, it is essential not only to ascertain television-viewing, radio-listening, and newspaper reading, but to determine the contacts, and the nature of the contacts, the people made with various governmental agencies; the interpersonal network; and role-playing as if one were in charge of a mass communication medium, among others. To explore motivation, a number of available measuring devices could be used. However, due to the nature of the task, it was decided to design a complete new set of questions to elicit responses suitable for this study. Measurement for motivation was worked out in terms of aspiration for various offices in the governmental hierarchy, desired income, and education for children, among others. Motivation

without any practical means of reaching the goal at which motivation is aimed could hardly be classified as motivation, as expounded earlier. A feasible way to determine motivation would be the sacrifice one is willing to make for the goal; for example, the time one is willing to spend, his activity or passivity in seeking assistance and advancement, and his contacts with and his acceptance by various people.

Based upon these two major objectives, i.e., communication patterns and motivation, a four-part questionnaire was designed. The first part consisted of demographic data; the second part tested motivation and aspiration; the third part examined communication patterns and behavior, and media usage; and the fourth part evaluated racial tension and discrimination.

Procedure

A pilot study concentrating on the Chicano and black areas was conducted in the early spring of 1971, with three purposes: first, to test the feasibility of such a study; second, to determine the cooperativeness of respondents; and third, to train personnel in interviewing, supervising, coding, and editing. Within the Chicano area, student members who did the interviewing encountered respondents who were extremely cooperative. Likewise, in the black area where no female interviewer wished to enter, the respondents were generally cordial.

The questionnaire was revised twice in accordance with the findings of the pilot study. In the meantime, extensive pretesting was carried out. The final version of the questionnaire was completed

in the late fall of 1971, and field work was completed in early 1972. The only drawback in using student interviewers was that a number failed to carry out instructions precisely; hence, many completed questionnaires had to be discarded.

Data collected were edited in accordance with the standard procedure, random checking, editing, and coding. Student members made numerous mistakes in the coding stage, primarily due to inexperience. About one-fourth of the questionnaires had to be coded three times, and every questionnaire was checked in its entirety at least once.

Sample

Four areas of Lubbock were chosen as being representative of black, Chicano, white, and affluent white neighborhoods. Hence, the sample was not that of the city, but that of ethnic groups, of which only the white was differentiated. Within each area, random samples of households were drawn, and selection of the respondents by a random number table was made. Respondents' cooperation was generally good, i.e., with the exception of not-at-home, refusal rate was extremely low in black, Chicano, and white areas, but high in the affluent white area, as the general prediction would have revealed.

Altogether, a total of 168 respondents was interviewed, including 39 questionnaires discarded. Each interview lasted on the average 30 minutes, a period seemingly deceptively short for a questionnaire of nine pages. The breakdown by four sub-samples was as follows: 41 black households, 37 Chicano households, 27 white households, and 24 affluent white households. Admittedly, a total number of 168 is

considered low in sociological studies; however, as an instructional experiment and a preliminary study on motivation and communication patterns, some indicative communicative behavior could be safely assessed, and some useful lessons learned.

Instructional Purpose

The study was designed also for instructional purposes, to familiarize students enrolled in the course "Public Opinion and Propaganda" at both graduate and undergraduate senior level with: (1) the conceptualization of problem areas; (2) the design of a comprehensive survey plan; (3) functions of public opinion and media and their relations; (4) the whole process of survey research; and (5) elementary data processing, computer usage (with computer library programs only), and data analysis.

There were many constraints in a study of this nature: first, there were absolutely no funds available for conducting even a small-scale survey; second, the eternal limiting factor of time; third, neither graduate nor undergraduate students had been exposed to the elements of survey research, nor to any mass communication theories and methodology; and fourth, more than half the students participating in the project had never ventured inside either a black or Chicano residential area: in their terminology, ghetto and barrio, respectively. To illustrate, one graduate student who had been a resident of the city for a number of years, and who was a reporter for the only newspaper in town, had such forebodings about entering the areas that he made numerous excuses to avoid doing so.

In order to remove such fears and suspicions, students were required to participate in five training sessions, with the dual purposes of removing fear and familiarizing them with the basics of survey procedure and interview techniques. Paid black and Chicano subjects staged mock interview sessions, on the assumption that some exposure and contact with the minority people might be helpful in removing unwarranted fear of the black and Chicano residential areas and persons. In addition, based on a pilot study, interviewer bias was thus controlled or eliminated.

Each graduate student was assigned to supervise three undergraduate students; however, the actual supervision was principally the function of this investigator alone. Exactly 39 interviews conducted by the undergraduate students had to be discarded due either to incompleteness of the questionnaire or erroneous recording. The discarded questionnaires presented another problem later in data analysis, e.g., men of the Chicano group were under-represented; only two-way analysis of variance for unequal cells could be performed because of the reduced cell-size.

Class evaluation and student performance evaluation were done before, during, and after the survey. The before-evaluation was primarily concerned with the conceptualization of problem areas; the during-evaluation with implementation of assigned interviews; and after-evaluation with a host of factors; i.e., the accuracy and completeness of interviews, results of random checking of interviewees, codability of questionnaires, and the number of call-backs (minimum required: three) student interviewers made, among others.

Since it was an instructional experiment, various scales were used and grouped together with specific sets of questions. The scales represented included dichotomous questions, three-point scales, four-point scales (without the customary neutral point), five-point scales (all of Lickert-type scales), open-end questions and follow-up questions, among others, in order to familiarize students with the wide range of scaling techniques existent in social survey literature.

A complete assessment of the class must be dealt with in another paper, but suffice it to say that a complicated survey with no funds could still be conducted in conjunction with a relevant course for the benefit of both graduate and undergraduate students, as Chaffee (1968) indicated; Hvistendahl (1969) voiced almost the same opinion. Some reservation must be aired in this connection: only the highly motivated students seemed to have attained the objectives of this experimental survey course.

I. Motivation as Aspiration for Position, Prestige, and Earnings

The stereotyped characterization of blacks and Chicanos is hardly tenable today, but it is "dying hard." The replication by Hraba and Grant (1970) of Clark and Clark's (1958) classic doll study has sufficiently demonstrated the black pride in racial identity. The study by Penalosa (1967) of the Chicanos in southern California has also indicated the typical misconceptions about them. The myth of low achievement orientation of Chicanos was also refuted by the study of Henderson and Merritt (1968). The dust storm Jensen (1969) generated in California concerning genetic potential differences in whites and blacks is far from calmed, as it is generally believed that intelligence can be attributed to both genetics and environment, as shown more than a decade ago by Hebb (1958, pp. 143-199) and by Scarr-Salapatek (1971).

Racial differences have been very much stressed in the academic world; however, this was hardly the case in social planning and treatment (Kolodny, 1969). There has been no tangible evidence to indicate conclusively that the black and Chicano are wanting sufficient motivation. Motivation is necessarily a cognitive state in which man is driven toward the best alternative envisioned by him. If such is the case, then motivation is directly related to the aspirations for gain, position, or prestige. On the other hand, it is accepted almost as fact that the socio-economic status is correspondent to motivation; the higher the SES, the higher and loftier the aspirations. The ethnic minorities have been dismissed as lacking aspiration. To explore this problem, the respondents were asked whether or not they

would like to be elected to various offices, from the U. S. Presidency down to city councilman. Questions dealt with aspirations for elected offices, expected earnings, educational level for children as desired by parents, and the number of hours respondent was willing to work in order to attain his objectives. Admittedly, this was not motivation per se as manipulated in experimental conditions; however, these factors might present a more realistic picture of minority aspirations.

Respondents were asked simply whether they wished to be the President of the United States, a U. S. Senator, a U. S. Congressman, the Texas Governor, mayor of the city, a councilman, or others. Dichotomous answers were obtained. They were also asked how much they desired their weekly earnings to be, and how long (hours per day) they were willing to work. They were asked about desired educational level for their children, in terms of high school, trade school, junior college, senior college, and beyond college.

Aspiration for Elected Offices

An overwhelming majority of the respondents had no desire to be elected to any office. The all-important office of the U. S. Presidency was rejected by 82.1% of the respondents, with 3.8% giving no opinion. Only about 14% of the respondents looked on the Presidency with favor. The blacks seemed more ambitious than other racial groups in their aspirations for all elected offices under examination; the percentage of blacks who answered in the affirmative was consistently higher: about a quarter of them would try the U. S. Senatorial or Congressional seat, or a state senatorial seat. The Chicanos seemed the least ambitious of all: only 10.8% desirous of the U. S. Presi-

dency, Senatorial or Congressional seats. The percentage increased when the office was localized: 18.9% would aspire for Texas Governor, 21.6% for state senator, 18.9% for mayor, and 16.2% for city councilman.

For the affluent whites, the U. S. Presidency was the least attractive of all, only about 8% answered in the affirmative. However, for Senatorial and Congressional seats, 25% and 21%, respectively, had ambition. Of the whites, 18.5% were willing to try for the U. S. Presidency, 22.2% for U. S. Senator and Congressman, 18.5% for Texas Governor, 14.8% for state senator, 22.2% for mayor, and 33.3% for city councilman.

In order to ascertain if there were any racial or sex differences, an analysis of variance was performed for each of the offices. In seven analyses of variance, no significant differences for the A factor (Race) or the B factor (respondents' sex) were found; no significant AB interaction for all except councilman was present. To simplify the ANOVA presentation, only the probability values of the F ratios for the main effects and interaction were listed in Table 1:2.

With the exception of .013 AB interaction for councilman, the probability values ranged from .059 to .966. For the race factor, the probability values ranged from .123 to .754. Data suggested that there was no racial difference in aspiration for any elected office. It may be said that each race was equally motivated or not motivated toward any of these elected offices, and men and women were equally desirous or not desirous of the offices.

Those who aspired to various elective offices were evidently motivated by altruistic objectives; only a negligible percentage of the respondents wished to gain more personal income. The overwhelming majority desired, in sum, to make it a better nation, state, or city, to administrate or legislate in accordance with their plans, to reduce taxes, to create more jobs, or to improve racial understanding.

The questions, "What would you do first, if you were .....?" were open-end questions. Hundreds of different replies were received, but they were generally categorized in the nine groups shown in Table 1:3. Some respondent's answers fit in several categories, but only the answer having first priority with the respondent was included in the examination.

The number of those who professed not knowing what to do if elected was the largest for the office or position chosen by respondents themselves (61.5%), and for the office of mayor (60.4%), although both offices were supposedly more familiar to the respondents. Ironically, the office of U. S. President had the least number of people who did not know what to do (34%) as compared with other offices.

Weekly Earnings Desired

As revealed constantly in interviews, amount of income desired may be an essential aspect of motivation. Respondents were asked how much, in actual dollars, they desired to earn per week. The analysis of variance revealed no significant difference by race or sex ($P < .20$; Table 1:4). Since it is meaningful to look into the means of their expected weekly earnings, a subsequent table for the after ANOVA multiple tests were performed.

On an ascending order of earning aspiration were: the blacks, Chicanos, whites, and affluent whites. Despite the ANOVA, the affluent white was found significantly different from both black and Chicano ($p < .01$ and .05 respectively; Table 1:4a). Women were generally less ambitious than men in terms of earnings aspired, but no significant difference was found between men and women. Men and women had, in this study, more or less the same expectation for weekly earnings.

In passing, one thing must be pointed out: the affluent whites had already realized their expected earnings and even beyond, whereas the other groups were striving toward their goal. The blacks desired only about $215, the Chicanos $280, the whites about $300, and the affluent whites $365 per week. Only the comparison between the blacks and the affluent whites was significant beyond the .05 level.

Parents' Desire for Childrens' Educational Attainments

The importance of education for the young was commonly recognized as vital to the future of the family and the society. Parental aspiration for children's educational achievement seems directly related to motivation. Considerable difference has been attached to the level of education attained by ethnic families.

Respondents were asked what level of education they desired for their children in terms of high school graduate, trade-school, junior college, college, and beyond college. The main effects of race were found to be significant beyond the .05 level (Table 1:5) mainly because of the Chicano's lower preference for educational achievement for children, as subsequent multiple comparison tests (Table 1:5a) showed.

Only the Chicano parents were satisfied with junior college, as compared with other ethnic groups. There was no significant difference among other racial groups; the black set the educational objectives as high as did the white. However, the affluent white seemed slightly more inclined to look beyond college for his children.

There was no difference between men and women in their educational expectations for their children.

To a certain extent, more affluent whites wanted their children to attain a college education or beyond college than whites, who in turn were more than blacks or Chicanos (Table 1:6).

Desiring children to complete a college education has the following breakdown: 56.5% blacks, 56.8% Chicanos, 63% whites, and 66.7% affluent whites. Wishing children to go beyond college: blacks 13%, Chicanos 16.2%, whites 22.2%, and affluent whites 25%. Clearly, the aspiration scale in descending order for the four groups is: affluent white, white, black, and Chicano.

Some fruitful research can be carried out along this line; for example, the economic status, social position, residential area, profession, material possessions, desires for offspring; in conjunction with the parental SES, position, and other attributes.

One unexpected finding in this examination was that close to 10% of all groups wanted their children to get into a trade; the affluent white was no exception, with 8.3%. Until there are some further studies, there is no real evidence to suggest that some parents might think that a college education is futile. However, it is a tempting research topic.

Parental aspirations for children might be attributed to the education received by parents. Educational levels achieved by respondents were very much along racial lines, i.e., the blacks had the lowest educational level; the Chicanos the next lowest; the whites and the affluent whites the higher and highest, respectively. Generally, the affluent whites had a college education, whereas the whites' education was at the high school and junior college level, and the blacks and Chicanos were at the high school and trade school level. In the ANOVA (Table 1:7) the main effect of race (significant at the .001 level) could be almost entirely attributed to the high educational level achieved by the affluent white respondents.

When the parental educational levels were compared with the educational levels to be attained by their children, both the blacks and the Chicanos wanted their children to achieve higher educational attainments, whereas the affluent whites desired their children to attain the same level of education as theirs. A slight regression of expectation for the whites by their parents was evident; the whites expected their children to attain a slightly lower level of education.

Willingness to Work

How long respondents were willing to work each day to achieve the desired position or salary seemed to be relevant to the seriousness of their intentions. As evidenced by Tables 1:8 and 1:8a, the stereotyped characterization of the minorities as being lazy was not substantiated. No significant ethnic or sex difference was found in terms of the respondents' willingness to work. On the average, they were willing

to work more than 10 hours a day. Despite lack of statistical significance, the blacks and whites were willing to work about the same amount of time. The Chicanos were willing to work an almost 12-hour day, whereas the affluent whites settled for an average of 10.43 hours a day.

A sizable number of respondents was willing to work "as many hours as necessary." Such a sentiment was commoner among blacks and Chicanos. Evidence presented so far hardly indicates that adherence to the "work ethic" is an exclusive characteristic of the whites.

Summary

When motivation was measured by aspiration for elected offices, desired weekly earnings, willingness to work, and desired educational levels for their children, there was very little, if any, difference among the three major ethnic groups under examination. The Rosen's (1959) finding about high correlation between achievement motivation with ethnicity and social class was true only with desired earnings and expected children's education, in terms of social class only. In large measure, this section of the study substantiated what Kuvlesky, Wright and Juarez (1971) found about status projections and ethnicity, i.e., the three ethnic groups in the southwest United States had more similarities than differences. In sum, they were equally desirous of a better life, as expressed in their willingness to work, and desired level of earnings; they were equally motivated to realize a better education for their children; and they aspired equally for elective offices.

Table 1:1

Lubbockite Aspiration for Elected Offices

Office	Race	Yes %	No %	No Answer %
U.S. President	Black	22.2	66.7	11.1
	Chicano	10.8	86.5	2.7
	White	18.5	81.5	0
	Rich White	8.3	87.5	4.2
	General	14.2	82.1	3.8
U.S. Senator	Black	27.8	66.7	5.6
	Chicano	10.8	83.8	5.4
	White	22.2	77.8	0
	Rich White	25.0	70.8	4.2
	General	19.8	76.4	3.8
U.S. Congressman	Black	22.2	72.2	5.6
	Chicano	10.8	86.5	2.7
	White	22.2	77.8	0
	Rich White	20.8	75.0	4.2
	General	22.6	11.3	2.8
Governor	Black	27.8	66.7	5.6
	Chicano	18.9	78.4	2.7
	White	18.5	74.1	7.4
	Rich White	16.7	79.2	4.2
	General	19.8	75.5	4.7
State Senator	Black	22.2	72.2	5.6
	Chicano	21.6	75.7	2.7
	White	14.8	81.5	3.7
	Rich White	12.5	87.5	0
	General	17.9	79.2	2.8
Mayor	Black	38.9	55.6	5.6
	Chicano	18.9	78.4	2.7
	White	22.2	77.8	0
	Rich White	20.8	74.5	0
	General	23.6	74.5	1.9
City Councilman	Black	33.3	61.1	5.6
	Chicano	16.2	81.1	2.7
	White	33.3	66.7	0
	Rich White	33.3	66.7	0
	General	27.4	70.8	1.9

Table 1:2

Probability Values for F-Ratios in a Simplified Version of ANOVAs of Aspiration for Elected Offices by Race and Sex

Aspired Offices	Race (A)	Sex (B)	AB Interaction
U.S. President	.283	.624	.270
U.S. Senator	.553	.267	.696
U.S Congressman	.680	.060	.689
Texas Governor	.740	.609	.966
State Senator	.754	.061	.794
Mayor	.268	.059	.288
Councilman	.123	.158	.013*

* $p < .05$

Table 1:3

ACHIEVEMENTS RESPONDENTS DESIRED WHEN ELECTED TO ASPIRED OFFICES

Aspired Office	Achievement Desired								Don't Know (no answer or hesitation)
	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
U. S. Presidency	7.5	6.6	7.5	34.9	5.7	1.9	0.0	1.9	34.0
U. S. Senator	10.4	4.7	6.6	14.2	6.6	3.8	0.0	0.9	52.8
U. S. Congressman	4.7	4.7	7.5	14.2	4.7	2.8	0.0	1.9	59.5
Texas Governor	4.7	10.4	5.7	11.3	12.3	1.9	0.0	3.8	49.9
State Senator	6.6	3.8	4.7	8.5	7.5	4.7	1.9	1.9	60.4
Mayor	6.6	12.3	12.3	12.3	3.8	1.9	0.0	4.7	46.1
Councilman	7.5	10.4	12.3	6.6	3.8	2.8	0.0	2.8	53.8
Others Selected by Respondent	17.0	0.9	7.5	1.9	0.9	0.9	2.8	6.6	61.5

a. To administrate or legislate in accordance with my plans.
b. To benefit race-relations in order to achieve racial understanding or equality.
c. To create more jobs and to solve problems for the people.
d. To make it a better nation, state, or city.
e. To reduce taxes and to economize government expenditure.
f. To try out or put my ideas into practice.
g. To gain more income.
h. To promote education for the benefit of children.

Table 1:4

Analysis of Variance of Desired Weekly Earnings

Source of Variance	M. S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	96,750.19	3	1.592	.1943
Sex (B)	113,929.06	1	1.871	.1708
AB	87,983.50	3	1.448	.2319
Within	60,772.34	105		
Total	62,937.73	112		

Table 1:4a

Mean Weekly Earning Expectations in Dollars
By Race

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White
Mean	$ 215.56	$ 279.99	$ 303.62	$ 365.00

Table 1:5

Analysis of Variance of Educational Expectation for Children

Source of Variance	M.S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	3.094	3	3.592	.016
Sex (B)	0.281	1	0.327	.576
AB	2.698	3	3.133	.028
Within	0.861	119		
Total	0.954	126		

Table 1:5a

Multiple Comparisons on Educational Expectation for Children by Four Ethnic Groups

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White	
Mean	3.98	3.35	3.96	4.08	Mean
Significance	*		*	*	3.35

* $p < .05$

Table 1:6

EDUCATION FOR CHILDREN
AS DESIRED BY ETHNIC
GROUPS IN LUBBOCK

	High School %	Trade School %	Junior College %	College Graduate %	Beyond College %	Don't Know %
Blacks	4.3	8.7	13.0	56.5	13.0	4.3
Chicano	10.8	10.8	2.7	56.8	16.2	2.7
Whites	3.7	7.4	0.0	63.0	22.2	3.7
Affluent Whites	0.0	8.3	0.0	66.7	25.0	0.0
Average	4.7	8.5	1.9	63.2	19.8	0.0

Table 1:7

Analysis of Variance of Education
by Ethnic Group and Sex

Source of Variance	M. S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	10.010	3	6.616	0.001
Sex (B)	6.078	1	4.017	0.045
AB	1.249	3	.825	
Within	1.513	117		
Total	1.749	124		

Table 1:7a

Multiple Comparisons on Educational
Level Attained by Race

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White	
Mean	2.667	2.973	3.214	4.077	Mean
		--	*	**	2.667
			--	**	2.973
				**	3.214

Table 1:8

Analysis of Variance of the Number of Hours
Respondents Were Willing to Work
To Achieve Desired Positions

Source of Variance	M. S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	23.208	3	.209	.890
Sex (B)	9.529	1	.086	.767
AB	40.985	3	.370	.778
Within	110.771	93		
Total	105.038	100		

Table 1:8a

Mean Number of Hours Willing to Work

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White
Mean	9.51	11.77	9.67	10.43

II. Attitudes Toward Local Issues Related to Racial Tension

Issues that concerned the residents of the city most in 1971 were the Dunbar incident, job opportunities, and busing. To evaluate attitudes toward the locally important issues, a number of questions concerning the incident, its aftermath, and others, were formulated and pretested.

The Dunbar incident was an event on September 9, 1971, in which a white student shot and killed a black classmate at Lubbock's Dunbar High School. A serious civil disturbance followed. Mayor James W. Granberry imposed a city-wide curfew from 10:30 P. M. to 6:30 A. M.

Contrasting with Levy's study (1971) in which 44.3% of the blacks and 16.8% of the whites in Detroit had heard about the Detroit riot, all respondents of this study had heard about the riot when the curfew was imposed. Probably because Lubbock is a much smaller city than Detroit, both news dissemination and receipt were much simpler. As Table 2:1 indicates, the shooting was considered a case of racial conflict by 55.5% black, 18.9% Chicano, 25.9% white, and 45.8% affluent white. Generally, the black who was in the middle of the civil disturbance area and the affluent white who was far removed from it looked upon the incident as a racial rift, whereas the opinions of the whites and Chicanos were less clear-cut.

The pilot study was made right after the incident. Respondents were asked on the Likert five-point scale of agreement and disagreement (strongly agree = 1, and so on) seven questions relevant to all ethnic respondents concerning important local issues: whether the Dunbar incident was a case of racial conflict, whether the police used

excessive force, whether the curfew imposed was necessary, whether the mayor did a good job, whether school busing was necessary, whether the minority groups had been treated fairly, and whether there was job discrimination in the city. In Table 2:1 the adjusted score was based for the reversed scale (strongly agree = 5, and so on, with 3 for the neutral or "don't know") and the formula S*F/500, where S is the scale value, F the frequency, and 500 the theoretical maximum.

Surprisingly, the majority of blacks, as contrasted with Chicanos and affluent whites, disagreed that the police had used excessive force. Of the black respondents, 5.6% strongly agreed, and 11.1% agreed, that the police in the Dunbar incident had used excessive force, as contrasted with 8.1% Chicano strongly agreed and 29.7% agreed; 11.1% white strongly agreed and 7.4% agreed; 12.5% affluent white strongly agreed and 25% agreed. However, a large number of both white (40.7%) and affluent white (41.7%) disagreed, though more blacks (27.8%) strongly disagreed than other groups. In adjusted scores, the black disagreed more, whereas the Chicano seemed more to agree, and the whites straddled the middle. The affluent whites and Chicanos thought the police used excessive force, whereas the blacks deemed that the police used restraint.

Concerning whether the curfew was necessary, the black attitude seemed polarized, whereas the non-black leaned to the necessity of the curfew. The performance of Mayor Granberry was rated the best by the affluent whites, and next by the Chicano and white, and the lowest by the black. Among the blacks, none strongly agreed and only 5.6% agreed that he had done a good job.

For the very controversial issue of school busing, the general attitude demonstrated polarization. The affluent whites seemed most pro-busing of the four groups; but their attitudes were not too much at variance with that of the blacks. The most anti-busing of the four were the whites.

Concerning the question of whether the minority groups had been treated fairly, the blacks seemed to be more indignant than the Chicanos, who in turn were more in disagreement with the statement than both groups of whites. Generally, more respondents agreed than disagreed with the statement. The next statement, "There is job discrimination in Lubbock" elicited some curious responses. The black group agreed with the statement least, whereas the affluent white agreed with the statement most. No data was available for further analysis to ascertain the underlying reason.

The Dunbar Incident

The black living amidst the turmoil in the area of Dunbar High School seemed to be intimately aware of the real issue: two teenage boys involved in an unfortunate incident in which the black boy was killed by the white boy. The majority of other ethnic groups dismissed it as a racial eruption. The black agreed, significant beyond the .05 level, that the incident had a racial tone (Table 2:2). Clearly, the non-black took refuge around the non-committal, neutral point, and the black could not fail to consider it as a racial conflict in nature. There was a significant main effect of race ($P < .05$), largely attributed

to the black attitude, but no significant main effect of sex and interaction was found. In the subsequent comparison table (Table 2:2a), the difference between the black and each of the other three groups was found to be significant at the .05 level, but no other pairwise comparison among the ethnic groups was found significantly different.

Use of Force by the Police

Despite the ANOVA (Table 2:3), showing a significant level at .084 on the effect of race, the black was the only group which did not consider that the police had used force out of proportion to the seriousness of the incident. No main effect of sex was found to be significant; however, the interaction between race and sex was significant beyond the .05 level. Generally, women of both white groups, as contrasted to their male counterparts, disagreed that the police had used excessive force, as the case with both black men and women.

It might seem curious amid the cries of police brutality that the black in this study saw a necessity for police force in dealing with the incident, which occurred in the middle of the black neighborhood. From speculation based on a few in-depth, unrestrained interviews, it might be surmised that the black understood the situation much better than did other groups, whereas the whites of both groups living outside the area of turmoil could only speculate whether the police had used more than enough force.

The Imposition of Curfew

Probably due to geographical propensity and higher involvement, since the victim was black, the black was the only group as a whole that considered the imposition of curfew unnecessary, despite the F-ratio of

the race factor with a probability value only at .112 (Table 2:4). No significant sex main effect was found, but the interaction between race and sex concerning curfew was found significant at .0067, far beyond the generally accepted .01 level. In the interaction, the comparison between women and men for every group was beyond the .01 level (Table 2:4a). Black women disagreed more about the necessity of curfew imposition than did black men, who took a neutral position. Women of both white groups agreed more with the necessity of curfew than did males.

It stands to reason that the blacks resented the imposition of the curfew as a restriction on their freedom, since it was very loosely enforced, if at all, elsewhere than in the black ghetto. The puzzling aspect was that the black men took a neutral position. In a post-mortem analysis, white women seemed to be of the opinion that the situation might have gone entirely out of hand if not for the curfew. The Chicano men took the same attitude; the Chicano women chose the middle of the road, as did the black males.

Rating the Mayor's Performance

The analysis of variance (Table 2:5) of the white, upper class mayor's performance indicated that the black, as contrasted to other ethnic groups, was not very well disposed toward the mayor. The black overwhelmingly disapproved of the mayor's actions; the affluent white rated the mayor on the positive side more than did the Chicano or the white, but without statistical significance.

The main factor of race in the ANOVA showed the F-ratio significant at the .0001 level. The AB interaction was significant at the .0341 level, beyond the customary .05 level. When the cell means of the AB interaction were examined, the black women gave the mayor's performance an obvious vote of non-confidence. Except for white women, women of the other groups rated the mayor's performance better than did the males of the groups. The Chicano male seemed better impressed by the mayor's performance. The attitude toward the mayor's performance was clearly drawn on a black/non-black line.

Disapproval of School Busing

Public opinion on one of the most controversial issues in the nation, school-busing to achieve integration, is still very much polarized today. In the southwest, it is a practice generally condemned. Respondents in this study were asked whether they agreed that school-busing was necessary for integration. In the analysis of variance, no main effect of race or sex, nor interaction was found significant; however, the cells' means were included (Table 2:6) to show that there was more disagreement than agreement by all ethnic groups, though the affluent whites (mean = 2.9) seemed to be more neutral on this issue. As school-busing as a means of integration has not yet begun in this area, and since affluent white students attend schools far removed from the black and Chicano areas, it is understandable that the affluent whites felt less hostility toward school-busing. Some of the less-affluent whites expressed more disagreement on school-busing, possibly because they felt that once it was implemented they would be more closely affected. Men and women of the less affluent white group had almost exactly the same opinion, whereas men of both the black and Chicano groups disapproved more than did the women of those groups.

Since the city has not yet had any practical experience with school busing to achieve integration, it may be that attitudes toward it have not yet crystalized. A follow-up study might be fruitful. In a study on a state-wide basis, the issue was not favored by the people of Texas, not even by those it would supposedly benefit, the blacks and Chicanos.

Fair Treatment for the Minorities

Concerning whether the minority groups in the city were treated fairly, the black disagreed slightly more than did the other ethnic groups, who never deviated very far from the neutral point in a five-point scale. The differences of race and sex were to a large extent eliminated by the interaction, which was significant beyond the .05 level.

Black men slightly agreed, while black women disagreed, that there was a fair shake for the minority people in the city, significant beyond the .05 level. Women in both white groups agreed slightly, as compared with white men in both groups, who were precisely at the neutral point, non-committal, and ventured no opinion. Comparatively, the Chicano men agreed most that there was fair treatment; however, Chicano women were slightly inclined to disagree. This was one of the issues in which men of the black and Chicano groups agreed that the treatment for the minorities was generally fair, while women of the black and Chicano groups disagreed. The reason for the discrepancy between attitudes of black and Chicano men and women could not be ascertained with available data. The attitudes of both men and women whites and affluent whites was quite understandable.

Job Discrimination

In the southwest, job discrimination was by no means a unique phenomenon restricted to a particular area; however, the typical attitude was that job discrimination existed elsewhere than in the native city. The analysis of variance on job discrimination as perceived by

the respondents bore out this popular concept.

Evidence as shown in Table 2:8 indicated that the black, curiously enough, denied the existence of job discrimination. The attitudes of both whites and Chicanos were ambiguous, converging around the neutral point. The affluent white maintained a slightly clearer, but by no means definitive, attitude. The puzzling aspect of the data was that the black failed to realize the existence of job discrimination. No other data can give it any rationale or explanation, especially when both men and women in every group agreed with each other concerning this problem.

Generally, the black attitude on job discrimination was found significantly different from that of all other ethnic groups ($P < .01$). If the contention is that only those who were discriminated against realized the existence of discrimination, it would have predicted a reversal of the black attitude in this study. No other data of this study could provide a plausible answer for this outcome.

What Should Be Done About Racial Tension

This was one of the few open-end questions to which respondents answered enthusiastically. Some explanation is in order for the categories: in the "nothing" category, the respondents usually expressed the feeling that "all is well," "everything is fine," "it's quite okay," and "I don't think anything should be changed." Under the "tolerance" category, the usual expression was a "live and let live" philosophy, such as "we live together; we might just work together," "it's important that people of different races should be more tolerant,"

etc. In the "law and order" category, respondents generally stressed more rigid law enforcement, more severe sentences for offenders, and getting rid of trouble-makers.

"Job and opportunity" specified more job opportunities for the minorities and more leadership positions held by members of the minorities. The rest of the categories, i.e., school integration, better education, better communications between races, better housing, no busing as a means of integration, and faith in God, are self-explanatory.

In Table 2:9, no black expressed the opinion that there was nothing to be done, whereas 33.3% of the whites, 25% of the affluent whites, and 35.1% of the Chicanos expressed the "all is well" opinion. Presumably, those non-blacks were satisfied with existing conditions so far as race relations were concerned. Racial tolerance was almost equally stressed by both blacks and whites; but the white stressed it much more than did the affluent white, with the Chicano stressing it the least. The percentage of respondents stressing law and order: 17.4% of the blacks, 2.7% of the Chicanos, 11.1% of the whites, and 4.2% of the affluent whites. Considering that the victims of any violence were to a large extent black, it is understandable that the black tended to consider law and order a more important issue than the other groups did.

The black and the affluent white seemed to attach a great deal of importance to the issue of school integration, whereas the Chicano

simply had not found it important in any way. For "better education" the black and white thought it was the most important thing that should be done to ease racial tension, whereas 8.3% affluent whites and 8.1% Chicanos thought it was. For all forms of better communication, 12.5% affluent whites, 8.1% Chicanos, 3.7% whites, and 0% blacks thought it was most important, whereas none of the other groups thought so.

The black and affluent white (13% and 12.5%) regarded school busing as detrimental to education and racial relations, but only 3.7% white and 8.1% Chicanos thought so. "Having faith in God" was considered by 16.2% Chicanos and 4.3% blacks to be most important, but neither white group gave any such indication.

Almost a third of blacks professed not to know what should be done, compared with the affluent white (8.3%), white (0%), and Chicano (0%).

Data show that for the black, racial tolerance, law and order, job opportunities, and school integration, seemed most important, while for the affluent white, "do nothing," racial tolerance, job opportunities, and law and order, seemed to be most important. For the white, "do nothing," job opportunities, and "having faith in God," seemed to be the most important. However, it must be pointed out that a large number of the blacks who chose "don't know" seemed to indicate that they had no intention of committing themselves.

For the black, "live and let live," law and order, school integration, and no busing, were important. For the Chicano, "do nothing," "faith in God," and job opportunities, were dominant issues. For the white, "do nothing," "live and let live," and job opportunity were foremost in his mind. For the affluent white, "do nothing," "live and let live," better communication, and no school busing, were important.

Table 2:1
Attitudes of Lubbockites
Toward Various Recent Issues

Issues	Race	Strongly Agree 5	Agree 4	Neutral 3	Disagree 2	Strongly Disagree 1	No Answer 3	Adjusted Score
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Dunbar	Black	22.2	33.3	16.7	11.1	5.6	11.1	64.2
Incident	Chicano	5.4	13.5	29.7	35.1	10.8	5.4	50.2
Was Racial	White	3.7	22.2	25.9	37.0	7.4	3.7	53.2
Conflict	A. White*	0.0	45.8	8.3	33.3	8.3	4.2	55.6
Police	Black	5.6	11.1	11.1	22.2	27.8	22.2	48.8
Used Ex-	Chicano	8.1	29.7	21.6	29.7	5.4	5.4	61.0
cessive	White	11.1	7.4	22.2	40.7	11.1	7.4	53.2
Force	A. White*	12.5	25.0	12.5	41.7	4.2	4.2	60.0
Curfew	Black	11.1	16.7	0.0	38.9	16.7	16.7	53.2
Imposed	Chicano	13.5	32.4	13.5	21.6	13.5	5.4	62.1
Was Neces-	White	7.4	33.3	11.1	22.2	22.2	3.7	56.2
sary	A. White*	12.5	25.0	12.5	45.8	0.0	4.2	60.8
Mayor	Black	0.0	5.6	16.7	33.3	33.3	11.1	40.1
Did a	Chicano	16.2	29.7	16.2	18.9	13.5	5.4	63.1
Good	White	7.4	37.0	14.8	29.6	7.4	3.7	61.4
Job	A. White*	16.7	37.5	4.2	33.3	4.2	4.2	65.9
Busing	Black	16.7	16.7	5.5	16.7	27.8	16.7	55.7
Is	Chicano	5.4	24.3	13.5	27.0	24.3	5.4	51.8
Neces-	White	14.8	11.1	3.7	37.0	33.3	0.0	47.3
sary	A. White*	20.8	20.8	4.2	25.0	25.0	4.2	57.4
Minority								
Groups	Black	16.7	0.0	22.2	27.8	22.2	11.1	52.2
Receive	Chicano	10.8	24.3	10.8	29.7	16.2	8.1	56.6
Fair	White	14.8	25.9	22.2	29.6	7.4	0.0	62.0
Treatment	A. White*	4.2	33.3	25.0	29.2	4.2	4.2	60.8
Lubbock	Black	5.6	0.0	11.1	22.2	44.0	16.1	39.6
has job	Chicano	13.5	32.4	10.8	27.0	10.8	5.4	62.1
discrim-	White	7.4	33.3	14.8	29.6	14.8	0.0	57.7
ination	A. White*	0.0	41.7	41.7	8.2	4.2	4.2	65.0

* Affluent White

Table 2:2

Analysis of Variance of Whether a Fatal Incident
In the City Was a Racial Issue
By Race and Sex

Source of Variance	M. S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	4.287	3	2.823	.041
Sex (B)	3.499	1	2.304	.128
AB	1.397	3	.920	.564
Within	1.519	115		
Total	1.600	122		

Table 2:2a

Multiple Comparisons on Means by Ethnic Groups[#]

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White	
Mean	2.39	3.23	3.23	3.00	Mean
Significance		*	*	*	2.39

* $p < .05$

[#] Scores: 1 = Strongly Agree; ..... 5 = Strongly Disagree

Table 2:3

Analysis of Variance of Whether the Police Used Excessive Force

Source of Variance	M. S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	3.873	3	2.260	.084
Sex (B)	0.028	1	0.018	.889
AB	5.498	3	3.519	.017
Within	1.562	110		
Total	1.700	117		

Table 2:3a

AB Interaction on Whether the Police Used Excessive Force[#]

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White
Sex				
Men	4.13	3.56	3.00	2.50
Women	3.45	2.73	3.75	3.38

[#] Scores: 1 = Strongly Agree; ..... 5 = Strongly Disagree

Table 2:4

Analysis of Variance of Whether the Curfew Was Necessary

Source of Variance	M. F.	df	F	P
Race (A)	3.186	3	2.031	.112
Sex (B)	0.057	1	0.036	.843
AB	6.766	3	4.315	.007
Within	1.568	113		
Total	1.726	120		

Table 2:4a

AB Interaction on Attitude Toward Necessity of Curfew Imposition#

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White
Sex				
Men	3.00	2.33	3.69	3.30
Women	4.05	3.08	2.69	2.69

Scores: 1 = Strongly Agree; ..... 5 = Strongly Disagree

Table 2:5

Analysis of Variance of Mayor's Performance

Source of Variance	M. F.	df	F	P
Race (A)	12.858	3	8.653	.0001
Sex (B)	1.338	1	0.900	.653
AB	4.412	3	2.969	.034
Within	1.486	115		
Total	1.836	122		

Table 2:5a

Multiple Comparisons on Mayor's Performance[#]

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White	
Sex					
Men	3.65	2.44	3.38	2.50	
Women	4.59	2.96	2.46	2.85	
Mean	4.12	2.70 **	2.92 **	2.67 **	Mean 4.12

** p .01

[#] Scores: 1 = Strongly Agree; ..... 5 = Strongly Disagree

Table 2:6

Means of Disapproval of School Busing[#]

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White
Sex				
Men	3.59	3.89	3.62	2.90
Women	3.25	3.27	3.64	3.31

[#] Scores: 1 = Strongly Agree; ..... 5 = Strongly Disagree

Table 2:7

Analysis of Variance on Attitude Toward Fair Treatment for the Minority Groups

Source of Variance	M. F.	df	F	P
Race (A)	1.568	3	1.073	.364
Sex (B)	2.173	1	1.487	.223
AB	4.553	3	3.115	.028
Within	1.462	115		
Total	1.546	122		

Table 2:7a

AB Interaction on Attitude Toward Fair Treatment for the Minority Groups #

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White
Sex				
Men	2.88	2.50	3.00	3.00
Women	3.95	3.38	2.79	2.69

Scores: 1 = Strongly Agree; ..... 5 = Strongly Disagree

Table 2:8

Analysis of Variance of the Existence of Job Discrimination

Source of Variance	M. S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	10.795	3	6.499	.0007
Sex (B)	0.220	1	0.132	.718
AB	0.385	3	0.232	.874
Within	1.661	115		
Total	1.843	122		

Table 2:8a

Multiple Comparisons on Job Discrimination by Race#

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White	
Mean	4.11	2.89	3.10	2.71	Mean
Significance		**	**	**	4.11

** P < .01

Scores: 1 = Strongly Agree; ..... 5 = Strongly Disagree

Table 2:9

Black, Chicano, and White Attitudes
On What Should Be Done
About Racial Tension

	Black %	Chicano %	White %	Affluent White %
Nothing	0.0	35.1	33.3	25.0
Tolerance	17.4	8.1	25.9	12.5
Law and order	17.4	2.7	11.1	4.2
Jobs and opportunity	4.3	13.5	14.8	8.3
School integration	13.0	0.0	7.4	4.2
Better education	0.0	8.1	0.0	8.3
Better communications	0.0	8.1	3.7	12.5
Better housing	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.2
No school busing	13.0	8.1	3.7	12.5
Faith in God	4.3	16.2	0.0	0.0
Don't know	30.4	0.0	0.0	8.3

III. Media Use

Contrary to what Klapper (1960) contended, mass media exert their ubiquitous and pervasive influence on a continuous, incremental manner, particularly at the present time when universal ownership of radio receiver sets is an accomplished fact, only a few homes lack a television receiver set, and illiteracy will soon become a historical word in the United States. Media use or human activities associated with media are today very much an integral part of socio-econo-political activities for the society and of behavioral and cognitive activities for the individual. Media in recent studies have been linked with political socialization and knowledge (Chaffee, Ward, & Tipton, 1970), with education, income, letter writing, voting, political efficacy, persuasion, etc. (Becker & Preston, 1969), with information searching behavior and information receptivity (Atkin, 1972), and with voting turnout (Glaser, 1965), just to name a few.

This section examines only the media behavior of the sample: (1) in terms of purely technical factors such as ownership of TV and radio sets, newspaper and magazine reading, movie attendance, and (2) in terms of racial and sex differences in media behavior. Relevant comparisons between this study and other studies are also made whenever they are pertinent. The relationship between media behavior and communication patterns and motivation will be attempted later in other sections.

Television Set Ownership and TV Watching

Television ownership on the average was above 96 percent, comparable to the national average (Lerner, 1971, p. 296). About 94.4 percent of the blacks and Chicanos, 96 percent of the whites, and

100 percent of the affluent whites owned television sets (Table 3:1). Data agreed with the results of Allen's (1968) study. Multiple television set homes were exclusively in the affluent white area (not shown on the table). The affluent white also had the largest proportion of color television sets; about 83.3 percent of the affluent whites owned color television sets, as contrasted to 66.7 percent for the whites, 48.7 percent for the Chicanos, and 52.6 percent for the blacks. Color television set ownership was much higher than the national average of 32 percent.

The analysis of variance for both television sets and color and black/white sets showed only significant difference for the race factor for the color and black/white set, mainly attributable to the large number of color television sets owned by the affluent whites. ($P < .01$)

In this study, time spent on television watching was lower than the national average, by one measure which listed 5 hours and 42 minutes (TvB, 1967); however, this can be attributed to the methods used in obtaining the results. This average watching time was generally known as the "set on time," which was recorded on an automatic device which indicated when the television set was on; whereas in this study, time spent on television watching was responses from respondents in an interview. That was close to Roper's (1967) figure of 2.6 hours; and Greenberg and Kutuma's figure of 2.26 hours (1968).

The mean time spent on daily TV watching in this study was 3.6 hours for weekdays and 4.6 for weekends. In the analysis of variance (Table 3:2), no significant main effect and interaction was found.

Newspaper Reading and Subscription

About three quarters of the sample read newspapers daily, and slightly more than half subscribed to newspapers. Time spent on reading newspapers was close to thirty minutes, if the "don't know" and "no answer" were dropped from consideration or considered as missing values. Subsequent analysis of variances showed no racial or sex difference in either time spent on reading newspapers weekends or weekdays. Even newspaper subscription showed no ethnic difference; therefore, no analysis of variance was included here. It is, however, not surprising as both Chicanos and blacks had their own papers with a limited circulation, in addition to the access to the only city newspaper.

The large number of respondents giving no answer was primarily due to: first, inability to recall how much time they spent reading newspapers; second, their newspaper reading time varied from day to day; and possibly third, they didn't want to admit that they had read no newspaper at all.

A quarter of the respondents read no newspapers; of the rest, half gave "don't know" answers, less than 15 percent spent more than 40 minutes reading newspapers, 17 percent 30 minutes, 6 percent 20 minutes, and 13 percent 10 minutes or less, for the weekdays. The mean time spent reading newspapers each day was 32 minutes on weekdays, and 42 minutes on weekends.

Radio Set Ownership and Listening

The majority of respondents had multiple radio sets, and no respondent lacked a radio receiver set. Ethnic differences were much in evi-

dence in the number of receiver sets owned. In contrast to the ownership of television sets, radio set ownership, in terms of numbers, was conspicuous in its socio-economic status, more than its racial character. Affluent whites, on the average, owned 3.5 sets, as contrasted to the 1.59 sets of the blacks, Chicanos 2.11 sets and whites 2.19 sets. No significant main effect of sex and interaction was found in the analysis of variance, (Tables 3:4 and 3:4a) in which the affluent whites were significantly different from all other groups ($ps < .001$), and the blacks were also different from the Chicanos and the whites ($p < .01$ and .05 respectively).

Radio listening time was far overshadowed by time spent on watching television. In the two analyses of variance on the time spent each day during the weekdays and during the weekends, significant difference was found only for the main effect of race during weekend listening ($P = .02$) which was contributed mostly by the comparatively longer listening by the blacks (Tables 3:5 and 3:5a). Generally, respondents spent about 2.5 hours listening to radio each day, much less than their TV watching time, but considerably more than their combined newspaper and magazine reading time. As shown in Table 3:5a, the affluent whites spent the least amount of time listening to radio as compared with other groups; however, the affluent whites, as Table 3:4a showed, had the largest number of radio receiver sets.

The affluent whites spent about the same amount of time as the national average of 1.95 hours (Greenberg & Kumata, 1968), but the other groups spent considerably more time than that.

In this study, radio was the only medium that had achieved universal ownership and listenership, i.e., no home lacked a radio receiver, and no one was completely out of the reach of radio.

Magazine Reading and Number of Magazines Read

The number of magazines read on a monthly basis was very much along the racial line of whites and nonwhites; the whites read more magazines than did the nonwhites. In the ANOVA of magazines read (Table 3:6) the main effect of race was found to be significant at the .021 level; no main effect of sex nor interaction was found significant. In the subsequent multiple comparison tests, the affluent whites read four magazines a month, significantly different from the Chicanos and the blacks ($P < .01$) and from the whites ($P < .05$). The whites read more than the Chicanos did, who in turn read more than the blacks did. The blacks read on the average only about two magazines a month. On a weekend, on the average the respondents spent about 30 minutes reading magazines; the blacks spent only 20 minutes or so, the Chicanos 35 minutes, the whites 36 minutes, and the affluent whites 26 minutes. During the weekdays, they spent an average of 30 minutes. Magazine reading time for this sample was considerably less than time spent on any other medium on a weekly basis. Although the affluent whites read a larger number of magazines, they did not by any means spend more time reading.

The data presented here were biased in a way, as the respondents who provided "no answer" or "don't know" were dropped from the analysis.

Monthly Movie Attendance

Ethnic difference was rather pronounced in movie attendance. The F ratio for the main factor race was significant at the .007 level (Table 3:8). In the subsequent multiple comparisons of the means (Table 3:8a), the black on the average watched 2.56 movies monthly, significantly different from the Chicano (1 90), white (1.08), and affluent white (1.80) (with Ps $<$ .05, .01, and .05, respectively). There was no significant difference between affluent white and Chicano; however, they were significantly different from white (P $<$ .05).

The less affluent white watched the least number of movies monthly. As in the analysis of magazine-reading, those who gave "don't know" or "no opinion" answers were eliminated from the analysis. Had they been included, the mean for movie-attendance would have been exactly halved; i.e., reduced from present grand mean of 1.83 times a month to .92 times per month.

Important News Source and Medium to Keep

Television has become the predominant news source (Roper, 1967). Questions on "important news source" and "which medium to keep" were simply a rough reliability check on the sample. In the analysis of variance, no significant main effects of race and sex nor of interaction were found. In the means, about half the respondents considered TV to be the most important news source; about 60 percent would keep television if they could keep only one of the media (Table 3:9). About 14 percent of the respondents considered radio the important news source and the one they would like to keep. The dominant role that

newspapers enjoyed not too long ago has been very much eroded by the broadcast media: only 10.9 percent of the respondents considered it the most important news source; 18.9 percent would keep it if nothing else was available. Magazines were dispensable. As compared with Roper's (1967) study, and Mehling's (1960) study, on the assumption the samples were comparable, television gained at the expense of newspapers, and radio maintained its standing. The reliability coefficient for this study with Roper's was 0.98.

News by "word of mouth," which Roper's studies did not explore, was thought of by respondents of this study as important as newspapers.

Summary

Media use by respondents in this study was not at great variance with the national average; but the differential use and exposure to mass media by two different socio-economic white groups and different races presented some meaningful, though tentative, findings: first, media use was less racially-oriented but more socio-economic in nature; second, the Chicanos, though a minority, tended to have more similar usage patterns with the whites than with the blacks; and third, the affluent whites seemed to have less exposure to mass media; in general they watched slightly less television, listened to less radio, read fewer magazines, and attended fewer movies, though reading more newspapers.

The blacks tended to spend more time on electronic media and movies, but less time on print media. The Chicanos and the less affluent whites had much in common in media use and exposure.

In terms of media accessibility, radio is a ubiquitous possession. For television, only the affluent whites achieved 100 percent ownership; with more than four-fifths of them owning color TV sets, color set ownership was considerably greater than the national average, which stood at 32 percent in 1970 (Lerner, 1971, p. 296).

Table 3:1

Television Set Ownership*

Categories/Race		Black %	Chicano %	White %	Affluent White %
Ownership	Yes	94.4	94.6	96.3	100.0
	No	5.6	2.7	3.7	0.0
	No Answer	0.0	2.7	0.0	0.0
Black-White Set		52.6	48.7	66.7	16.7
Color Set		41.8	45.9	29.6	83.3

* Only color sets vs b/w sets was found significant in the ANOVA ($p < .01$); as it is obvious in the frequency table, no ANOVA for this analysis in the report.

Table 3:2
Analysis of Variance of Hours Spent on TV Watching

Source of Variance	Weekdays				Weekends			
	M.S.	df	F	P	M.S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	4.103	3	1.181	.320	10.235	3	1.869	.138
Sex (B)	4.601	1	1.325	.251	0.441	1	0.081	.774
AB	5.759	3	1.658	.179	3.095	3	0.565	.644
Within	3.473	108			5.478	101		
Total	3.559	115			5.497	108		

Table 3:2a
Means Hours Spent on TV Watching

Category	Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White
Weekday	Male	4.85	3.78	3.07	3.45
	Female	3.05	3.75	3.00	3.69
Weekend	Male	4.37	6.00	4.00	3.82
	Female	4.57	5.12	4.82	4.23

Table 3:3

Newspaper Reading Behavior

	Yes (%)	No (%)	No Answer (%)	Total (%)
Reading	74.5	17.9	7.5	99.9
Subscription	51.9	32.1	16.0	100.0

Table 3:3a

Mean Minutes Spent on Daily Newspaper Reading

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White
Weekdays	29.8	32.3	31.2	35.9
Weekends	37.4	48.2	37.5	45.8

No significant difference was found in ANOVAs.

Table 3:4
Analysis of Variance of the Number of Radio Sets

Source of Variance	M.S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	18.311	3	15.554	.0001
Sex (B)	0.008	1	0.007	
AB	0.094	3	0.080	
Within	1.177	114		
Total	1.566	121		

Table 3:4a

Multiple Comparisons on Mean Number of Radio Sets by Race

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White	
Means	1.59	2.11	2.19	3.51	Means
		*	**	***	1.59
			ns	***	2.11
				***	2.19

* $p<.05$; ** $p<.01$; *** $p<.001$, ns=not significant

Table 3:5

Analysis of Variance of Hours Spent on Radio-Listening

Source of Variance	Weekdays M.S.	df	F	P	Weekends M.S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	1.611	3	.739	.53	9.121	3	3.566	.02
Sex (B)	.356	1	.163	.67	5.290	1	2.068	.15
AB	2.259	3	1.037	.38	1.043	3	.408	.75
Within	2.179	116			2.558	112		
Total	2.153	123			a.708	119		

Table 3:5a

Mean Number of Hours Spent on Radio-Listening

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White
Weekdays	2.60	2.39	2.50	2.05
Weekends	3.34	2.59	2.42	1.94

Table 3:6

Analysis of Variance of the Number of Magazines Read

Source of Variance	M. S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	8.329	3	3.620	0.021
Sex (B)	2.926	1	1.272	0.265
AB	1.220	3	0.530	0.668
Within	2.301	40		
Total	2.630	47		

Table 3:6a

Multiple Comparison on Number of Magazines Read by Race

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White	
Mean	1.958	2.230	3.167	4.000	Mean
		--	*	**	1.96
			*	**	2.23
				*	3.17

* $P < .05$; ** $P < .01$

Table 3:7

Time Spent Weekly on Reading Magazines

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White
	(minutes)	(minutes)	(minutes)	(minutes)
Weekdays	32.94	34.88	29.38	23.89
Weekends	20.56	35.51	36.67	26.41

No significance found in any pairwise comparison by race.

Table 3:8

Analysis of Variance of Monthly Movie Attendance
By Ethnic Groups and Sex

Source of Variance	M. S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	5.041	3	4.353	.007
Sex (B)	1.894	1	1.635	.203
AB	.875	3	.755	.526
Within	1.158	64		
Total	1.321	71		

Table 3:8a

Multiple Comparisons on Monthly Movie Attendance

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White	
Mean	2.56	1.90	1.08	1.80	Mean
		*	**	*	2.56
			*	--	1.90
				*	1.08

* $P < .05$; ** $P < .01$

Table 3:9

Important News Source and News Medium to Keep

	TV %	Radio %	News-paper %	Maga-zine %	Word of Mouth %	No Opinion Don't Know %
Important News Source	49.1	14.5	10.4	0.9	10.4	14.7
Which medium to keep	60.4	14.2	18.9	4.7		1.8
Roper's 1967 Study	53.0	14.0	26.0	3.0		4.0

IV. Interest in News Categories

Domestic news commanded the greatest attention among all groups under examination (Table 4:1). Women's page for women, and sports page for men, as always, were also in the "most interesting" category. Despite the fact that not too many respondents talked about international news, which was ranked second, together with murder stories, they did express a more than casual interest in foreign news; features, news of TV and radio programs, and cartoons were next in interest. However, crossword puzzles and art news were the least interesting, ranking last and second from the last.

For the blacks, sports, domestic news, murder, and advertisements were in the "most interesting" category. Editorials, letters to the editor, and features, were "somewhat interesting" news. For the Chicano, domestic news, news about radio and TV programs, were interesting items, followed by foreign news, cartoons, news of murder, and advertisements. For a third of the whites, sports was definitely the most interesting item; however, they were also "just interested" in foreign news, editorials, cartoons, domestic news, features, and news of radio and TV programs. For the affluent white, domestic news, women's page, and features were most interesting items. News of murder, foreign news, ads, editorial cartoons, movie reviews, letters to the editor, news of radio and TV programs, were items in the "just interested" category.

Newspaper Content Preferences

Of the sixteen news categories: international news, domestic news, art news, feature stories, murder stories, sports, cartoons, women's

page, financial page, movie reviews, letters to the editor, editorials, crossword puzzle, news of radio and TV programs, want ads, and ads; five were found to yield a significant F ratio for the sex factor; another five were found significant for the ethnic factor. The "interest" scale for news categories was a four-point scale with the theoretical mean of 2.5.

For the five ANOVAs for which the sex factor was significant, as could be predicted, men were found significantly more interested in murder stories, sports, cartoons, and financial news. Women were found more interested in the women's page (Table 4:2). For significant ethnic differences, the Chicanos were found particularly interested in cartoons, movie reviews, and women's page. It is interesting to note that the blacks and Chicanos were more interested in want ads than the whites, whereas the affluent whites needed the want ads least. Chicanos seemed more interested than blacks in radio and television programs; blacks in turn were more interested than the whites (Table 4:3).

So far as international and domestic news, art news, features, letters to the editor, editorials and crossword puzzle were concerned, no ethnic or sex differences were found.

Only cartoons had both significant ethnic and sex differences. The difference between men and women in their interest in contents seemed to be more pronounced than any difference by race.

Television Violence and Sex

Notwithstanding Confucius' comment 2,600 years ago, that "man by nature loves sex," the arguments over the pros and cons of airing tele-

vision violence and sex have been raging all of the past decade. It is beyond the scope of this study to attempt to tackle the moral questions, or to ascertain whether TV violence and sex elicit catharsis, catalyst, or indifferent reactions; its purpose was simply to examine whether television violence and sex were liked or resented.

There is no definitive evidence to indicate that any particular race is prone either to violence or to sexual excesses. Therefore, the analysis of television violence and sex in this section was purely an exploratory effort, aimed at eliciting responses in terms of liking or disliking.

A four-point scale from 1 to 4, ranging from dislike very much to like very much, for violence and sex contents, was formulated and pretested. No neutral point was provided in the scale. The ANOVAs as shown in Tables 4:4 and 4:5 indicated no racially significant difference; however, the main effect of sex was significant beyond the .001 level. The subsequent mean attitude table (Table 4:6) indicated that women were overwhelmingly against both television violence and television sex, where the reaction of men was more one of intrigue. Actually, some of them liked violence and sex programs very much (the mean for white males was 3.08 for violence and 3.0 for sex, but not shown in the table). Women, regardless of race, disliked violence and sex programs equally. Clearly, men were much better disposed toward television violence and sex.

Table 4:1

Degree of Interest in News Categories
by Race
Adjusted Scores in Percentage

Category	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White
Foreign News	63.5	68.6	63.9	81.2
Sports	67.4	62.5	60.2	74.0
Editorials	66.3	60.1	63.0	67.7
Cartoons	53.2	70.6	58.8	62.5
Movie Reviews	63.6	70.3	48.6	60.9
Financial News	48.8	58.5	50.0	56.3
Want Ads	69.6	63.9	53.7	50.0
Letters to the Editor	64.1	59.1	58.3	61.4
Domestic News	72.8	75.4	61.6	86.0
Women's Page	59.8	74.7	62.5	67.7
Features	70.7	67.9	60.2	75.0
Art News	51.0	47.0	47.7	63.0
Murder	61.9	73.0	57.0	69.8
Ads	71.2	70.3	59.7	63.6
Radio and TV Programs	55.4	74.3	58.8	63.5
Crossword Puzzle	42.5	53.7	42.1	53.1

Table 4:2

Mean Interest in Newspaper Contents
With Significant Sex Difference
(Simplified ANOVAs)

Category	Men	Women	F	P
Murder stories	3.48	2.82	4.64	.031
Sports	3.70	2.49	16.77	.0002
Cartoons	3.13	2.53	4.16	.0411
Woman's page	2.28	3.34	15.46	.0003
Financial news	2.76	2.16	3.73	.0528

Table 4:3

Mean Interest in Newspaper Contents
With Significant Ethnic Difference

Category	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White	P
Cartoons	2.47	3.44	2.89	2.50	<.05
Movie Reviews	2.53	3.56	2.45	2.44	<.05
Women's page	2.05	3.45	2.99	2.62	<.05
Want ads	3.10	3.02	2.66	2.01	<.07
Radio & TV programs	3.06	3.68	2.86	2.53	<.06

Table 4:4

Analysis of Variance Indicating Attitude Toward Television Violence

Source of Variance	M. S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	0.782	3	0.853	.529
Sex (B)	17.593	1	19.193	.0001
AB	1.266	3	1.381	.251
Within	0.917	115		
Total	1.059	122		

Table 4:5

Analysis of Variance Indicating Attitude Toward Television Sex

Source of Variance	M. S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	.272	3	0.258	.8566
Sex (B)	19.353	1	18.333	.0001
AB	1.521	3	1.441	.2333
Within	1.056	114		
Total	1.199	121		

Table 4:6

Mean Attitude Toward Television Violence and Sex, by Sexes

Sex	TV Violence	TV Sex
Men	2.756	2.702
Women	1.957	1.860

V. Interpersonal Communication

There must be hundreds of determinants in interpersonal communications: status, setting, norms, taboos, objectives, role, personality, and media, etc. In this section, however, only the frequency of interpersonal communication with spouse, relatives, neighbors, and others, together with a limited number of topics, were examined. The frequency of interpersonal communication is usually indicative of the cohesiveness of relationship between the communicator and the communicatee, and vice versa. Propensity of both communicators and communicatees, as well as relevancy of the two, also influence the volume and content of communication. Other factors were suspected at work, such as social distance.

In the frequency table of personal communication (Table 5:1), and communication topics (Table 5:3), the adjusted total is obtained by the formula SF/500 where S is the scale value, F the frequency and 500 the theoretical maximum. Its inclusion is to simplify the cumbersome reading of frequencies. Attempts will be made to analyze frequency, propensity and relevancy in terms of ethnic difference.

As shown in Table 5:1, the Chicano communicated most with spouse (54.1%). In the rank order as seen from the adjusted scores, it seems that the Chicano placed a great deal of importance on husband-wife communication, with 79.4 as compared with the black, 71.1; the white, 74.0; and the affluent white, 78.2. About 16.7% of the blacks never communicated with the spouse. The data demonstrated, to a certain degree, a greater cohesiveness in Chicano families than in either white or black families. In communication with relatives, the affluent whites, in rank order of the four groups, had the least communication, and the black the most.

In terms of communications with neighbors, the blacks seemed to live in solitude; a total of 61.1% never communicated with neighbors, 27.8% rarely, and 11.1% sometimes did, but none often or always talked with neighbors. Only the Chicano and the affluent white communicated slightly better; they occasionally communicated with their neighbors.

In terms of talking with friends, the rank order was: affluent white, 60.8%; Chicano, 54%; white, 51.8%; and black, 49.9%; clearly the affluent white talked more often with friends than did other groups. The blacks seemed to present the impression that they wanted nothing to do with lawyers and the police; 77.8% never communicated with lawyers, 88.9% never communicated with the police; whereas for the whites, 59.3% never communicated with either the police or a lawyer. For the affluent whites, 33.3% never talked with a lawyer, and 62.5% never talked with the police.

In communication with school teachers, the black again became a somewhat noncommunicative person; 61.1% never, 11.1% rarely, 16.7% sometimes, 0% often, and 11.1% always talked with school teachers. The Chicano communicated with teachers slightly more (48.6% never, 16.2% rarely, 18.9% sometimes, 5.4% often, and 2.7% always). The affluent white sometimes (50%) talked with school teachers, 20.8% never, 25% rarely, 0% often and always. Rank of adjusted score is as follows: affluent white, 46.7; white, 39.9; Chicano, 39.4; and black, 37.7.

Communication with ministers was more frequent than that with teachers. In a ranking order, the black communicated most as compared

with other groups; black, 67.7; Chicano, 45.9; affluent white, 44.1; and white, 41.4. The Chicano communicated with ministers much less frequently than the black, but still more than both white groups. In a very general comparison, the Chicano communicated most with husband and wife; the affluent white had the most contact with friends, but least with relatives. Both the affluent white and Chicano had better communication with neighbors than others did. The black had the most contact with ministers as compared with other groups. Communication with lawyers showed the affluent white had the most contacts.

In frequency of personal communication in general, there was no significant difference among races (Table 5:2). The rank order of communication with spouse, relatives, friends, ministers and so on indicated to a certain extent the cohesiveness, relevancy, and propensity between communicator and communicatee. A more complete examination will be made in due time.

Communication Topics

Communication topics in interpersonal communication usually indicate the importance attached to the subject-matter discussed. The frequency of the occurrence of any topic generally attests to the degree of its importance. As an exploratory work, only a limited number of topics were included. Topics such as the Vietnam war, drugs, and abortion, were intentionally avoided in this study.

In the adjusted totals, the frequency of conversational topics indicated the importance of children, money, and job; all these were highly relevant to respondents. Despite the dominance of news of the Vietnam

war and large quantities of government-disseminated information, international news and government were the least talked-about topics.

For the white, money and children were the dominant topics, job and church second, education and legal matters third, and international news and government the least discussed topics. For the affluent white, the most frequently talked about subject matter was children, followed by money, job, and education. Church and government were the least discussed topics. Very little difference was found among ethnic groups (as determined in eight ANOVAs not shown here), except that whites, apart from the affluent whites, talked about money more often than about the seemingly dominant topic of children. Government, international news, and legal matters, in that order, were topics for occasional conversation.

The affluent whites discussed church more often than any other thing excepting money and children. Discussion of jobs seemed to be of the least importance. Legal matters and children were occasionally discussed. Fifty percent talked of international news sometimes. They discussed more topics "sometimes" than did any other group. However, data was unavailable as to the frequency or duration of these conversations, so that no assumption can be made about the probable greater amount of leisure time among this group.

Black Lubbockites answered "don't know" to more of the questions than did any other group. However, among the positive answers received, children, church, money and job were the topics most often discussed, in

that order. Government and legal matters were the least discussed subjects, with international news running a close third.

Among the Chicanos, discussion of children and money again dominated communication with other people. Job and education followed. International news was the least discussed topic, although it was discussed occasionally.

Data presented some evidence that respondents were more concerned with matters directly related to the individual family and personal needs.

Table 5:1

Personal Communication

Person with whom talked	Race	Never 1	Rarely 2	Some-times 3	Often 4	Always 5	No Answer 3	Adjusted Total
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Husband/Wife	Black	16.7	0.0	0.0	22.2	33.3	27.8	71.1
	Chicano	10.8	2.7	8.1	13.5	54.1	10.8	79.4
	White	3.7	0.0	14.8	7.4	40.7	29.6	74.0
	Affluent White	4.2	4.2	12.5	29.1	37.5	12.5	78.2
Relatives	Black	11.1	5.6	44.4	16.7	16.7	5.6	64.4
	Chicano	16.2	16.2	40.5	16.2	5.4	5.4	55.6
	White	22.2	14.8	29.6	18.5	3.7	7.4	51.0
	Affluent White	20.8	37.5	20.8	16.7	0.0	4.2	47.5
Neighbors	Black	61.1	27.8	11.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	30.0
	Chicano	40.5	13.5	27.0	13.5	0.0	5.4	43.7
	White	48.1	7.4	25.9	3.7	3.7	7.4	39.2
	Affluent White	25.0	29.2	33.3	8.3	0.0	4.2	45.8
Friends	Black	27.8	16.7	44.4	0.0	11.1	0.0	49.9
	Chicano	18.9	8.1	37.8	18.9	2.7	10.8	54.0
	White	25.9	7.4	33.3	14.8	7.4	7.4	51.8
	Affluent White	8.3	16.7	33.3	37.5	0.0	4.2	60.8
Lawyer	Black	77.8	5.6	0.0	5.6	11.1	0.0	33.3
	Chicano	73.0	8.1	8.1	5.4	0.0	5.4	30.2
	White	59.3	14.8	3.7	3.7	0.0	14.8	31.8
	Affluent White	33.3	25.0	25.0	4.2	4.2	8.3	44.2
Police	Black	88.9	0.0	5.6	0.0	5.6	0.0	26.7
	Chicano	62.2	16.2	10.8	2.7	0.0	8.1	32.4
	White	59.3	11.1	11.1	0.0	0.0	14.8	31.8
	Affluent White	62.5	20.8	12.5	0.0	0.0	4.2	30.8
School teachers	Black	61.1	11.1	16.7	0.0	11.1	0.0	37.7
	Chicano	48.6	16.2	18.9	5.4	2.7	8.1	39.4
	White	44.4	7.4	25.9	0.0	3.7	14.8	39.9
	Affluent White	20.8	25.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	4.2	46.7
Minister	Black	11.1	5.6	38.9	22.2	22.2	0.0	67.7
	Chicano	37.8	13.5	27.0	8.1	5.4	8.1	45.9
	White	44.4	11.1	22.2	3.7	7.4	7.4	41.4
	Affluent White	25.0	33.3	29.2	4.2	0.0	8.3	44.1
Other	Black	22.2	0.0	5.6	11.1	5.6	55.6	55.6
	Chicano	51.4	0.0	10.8	2.7	2.7	32.4	41.0
	White	33.3	0.0	7.4	3.7	0.0	51.8	45.1
	Affluent White	37.5	12.5	4.2	0.0	0.0	45.8	42.4

Table 5:2

Comparison Tests of Mean Personal Communication
By Race *

	Black %	Chicano %	White %	Affluent White %	Average %	Rank
Husband/wife	71.1	79.4	74.0	78.2	75.7	1
Relatives	64.4	55.6	51.0	47.5	54.6	2
Neighbors	30.0	43.7	39.2	45.8	39.7	7
Friends	49.9	54.0	51.8	60.8	54.1	3
Lawyers	33.3	30.2	31.8	44.2	34.8	8
Police	26.7	32.4	31.8	30.8	30.4	9
Teachers	37.7	39.4	39.9	46.7	40.9	6
Minister	67.7	45.9	41.4	44.1	49.8	4
Others	55.6	41.0	45.1	42.4	46.0	5
Mean	48.5	46.8	45.1	48.9		

* No pairwise comparison by race is significant.

Table 5:3

Communication Topics

Talked about -	Never 1	Rarely 2	Some-times 3	Often 4	Always 5	No Answer 3	Adjusted Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Black							
International news	13.0	21.7	17.4	8.7	4.3	34.5	53.6
Legal matters	17.4	17.4	13.0	0.0	8.7	44.2	52.4
Church	0.0	4.3	13.0	17.4	13.0	52.3	67.7
Education	21.7	8.7	8.7	13.0	13.0	34.9	57.3
Job	17.4	0.0	4.3	26.1	8.7	43.5	61.6
Money	17.4	8.7	13.0	0.0	26.1	34.8	61.6
Children	4.3	4.3	13.0	13.0	26.1	39.3	70.4
Government	13.0	17.4	17.4	0.0	0.0	52.2	51.2
Chicano							
International news	24.3	16.2	29.7	5.4	8.1	16.3	51.3
Legal matters	27.0	13.5	16.2	18.9	8.1	16.3	55.5
Church	27.0	16.2	8.1	16.2	16.2	16.3	55.6
Education	13.5	8.1	13.5	18.9	27.0	19.0	67.5
Job	2.7	0.0	16.2	24.3	37.8	19.0	78.9
Money	5.4	2.7	5.4	21.6	45.9	19.0	79.9
Children	2.7	0.0	8.1	27.0	45.9	16.3	82.6
Government	16.2	27.0	18.9	10.8	5.4	21.7	52.4
White							
International news	14.8	11.1	18.5	14.8	7.4	33.4	57.7
Legal matters	3.7	11.1	22.2	11.1	18.5	33.4	65.9
Church	3.7	0.0	22.2	18.5	22.2	33.4	71.0
Education	3.7	18.5	7.4	14.8	22.2	33.4	66.3
Job	11.1	0.0	0.0	33.3	22.2	33.4	71.1
Money	3.7	0.0	3.7	11.1	48.1	33.4	79.8
Children	0.0	3.7	11.1	18.5	33.3	33.4	76.2
Government	18.5	11.1	11.1	3.7	3.7	51.9	52.6
Affluent White							
International news	8.3	8.3	50.0	16.7	4.2	12.5	60.0
Legal matters	4.2	12.5	41.7	20.8	8.3	12.5	63.3
Church	16.7	16.7	37.5	16.7	0.0	12.5	53.3
Education	4.2	0.0	33.3	41.7	8.3	12.5	69.8
Job	4.2	0.0	20.8	41.7	20.8	12.5	74.9
Money	4.2	0.0	16.7	33.3	33.3	12.5	78.3
Children	4.2	4.2	4.2	33.3	41.7	12.5	80.8
Government	12.5	12.5	25.0	25.0	0.0	25.0	57.4

VI. Role Playing

Role behavior and role-playing (e.g., Sarbin & Jones, 1956, Janis & King, 1954) seemed to be a powerful tool in social and behavioral sciences, when used appropriately. Close to the as-if formula, which is still "the most direct or at least the most face-valid method" today (Sarbin & Jones, 1956), this section attempts to examine "if and when" respondents were in charge of a medium. Apart from ascertaining respondents' acceptance or rejection of media programs, role-playing might produce a more objective evaluation of the performance of mass media, as the respondents were asked specifically what to delete and to add. In addition, the reasons for addition and deletion could be examined as well.

In the meantime, such techniques could also provide general knowledge about the respondents' understanding of and exposure to media; for that a correlational analysis might be performed (though it must be dealt with in another paper concerning relation between respondents' exposure to media and their decision-making when playing roles). A large area in role-playing, role-expectations, role-enactment, and role-taking, which is the arena of the sociologists, might be opened to mass communications studies. This section, therefore, must be looked upon as an exploratory endeavor, and what is presented here must be regarded as a very rudimentary attempt to adopt role-playing in mass communications studies.

Role Playing When and If in Charge of Media

Generally, media practitioners claim to know their publics, and what their publics want. Be that as it may, respondents when asked to step into the shoes of media director or editor were no longer the silent majority previously envisioned. If in charge of a TV station, some of them wanted to see more comedy, detective, western, religious, ethnic, and news and weather shows. A sizeable number of them wanted to delete from TV programs violence, sex, and commercials (Table 6:1). However, television violence and sex were well liked by men of all ethnic groups (Table 4:6).

Except for ethnic shows, no racial difference was found, and except for violence and sex programs, no sex difference was found. The reasons for TV program addition and deletion varied, but simplistic reasons for addition were centered around "to help the people," "just like it," "to make the people happy," "to help race relations," and "dislike the present show." The reasons for deletion were predominantly "don't like" (Table 6:2).

Many respondents mentioned more than one program for addition and deletion, but only one proposed addition and one proposed deletion for each respondent were analyzed. A sizeable number of respondents had nothing to add or delete. If any inference can be made from such a primitive exploratory study, it is that the respondents were not perfectly satisfied with present programs. For an overall and in-depth assessment of media programming, it is necessary to design a more comprehensive study program on a continuous basis, so that any change in public tastes may be detected.

In the Role of Newspaper Editor

When respondents played the role of newspaper editor, they wanted more good, solid news (15.1%), and local news (10.4%). The astonishing results for sports editors and writers were that 23.6% of the respondents wanted to get rid of sports news. Also, 15.1% decided to do away with the society page (Table 6:3). Again, apart from ethnic news, no racial difference was found, and except for violence, no sex difference was found.

More than half the respondents had no idea what should be added to the newspaper; but only about one-third did not want to exercise any "gate-keeping function" at all. The reasons given for addition and deletion can be summarized as personal preference.

No one mentioned deleting newspaper ads, which one might speculate were not so imposing as television and radio commercials; after all, no one has to read a newspaper ad. At the present time, newspaper content analysis and readership studies seem to have lost favor with researchers, judging by the absence of publication in these two fields. There seems to be a fruitful field for newspapers and other print media in the areas of content addition and deletion, to the end that improvement, from the readers' viewpoints, could be made.

The reasons given for newspaper content addition and deletion can be summarized as personal preference by respondents (Table 6:4). About two-thirds expressed no opinion for addition, and nearly half had nothing to say about deletion.

In the Role of Radio Station Manager

When and if respondents were radio station managers, they seemed inclined to broadcast more music, but not necessarily country music or modern music. Talk shows and commercials met with more disapproval than did any other programs. Under "program deletion" (Table 6:5), commercials were ranked second.

Both program additions and deletions must be taken as general indications, as no distinction was made in terms of which radio stations. It must be emphasized that this section should be regarded as exploratory. Soul programs were mentioned only by the black; request for religious programs came largely from blacks and Chicanos. In this respect, the inevitable question arises as to whether stations must also program solely for the minorities.

The reasons for deletion and addition, in company with those given for television and newspaper additions and deletions, were almost purely personal preference; therefore, the table for reasons was omitted.

In the Role of Magazine Editor

About two-thirds of the respondents had no opinion about magazine additions or deletions; however, sex and ads seemed to be two major items that respondents would want to delete (Table 6:6). The reasons given followed the pattern of addition and deletion preferences for the other media, generally personal preference. If the 10.4% "add nothing" and the 11.3% "delete nothing" were added to the "don't know," only one-fourth of the respondents would change anything, when and if they were editors of magazines.

Summary

Subsequent analysis for all questions in role-playing failed to yield any significant interaction, primarily due to the large number of "no opinion" and "don't know" answers. Data as shown in the frequency tables of role-playing and reasons for change indicated that there was still a sizeable proportion of respondents who would have initiated some change, mainly of individual preference. To a certain extent, evidence also demonstrated that a large number of respondents were not perfectly satisfied with the media performance, and furthermore seemed to imply that many respondents would not be timid in exercising their power when and if they were in charge of any particular medium.

Table 6:1

TV PROGRAM ADDITIONS AND DELETIONS
AS DESIRED BY RESPONDENTS WHEN AND
IF THEY WERE TV STATION MANAGERS

TV Programs	Program Addition %	Program Deletion %
Violence		10.4
Soap opera	5.7	5.7
Movies	4.7	2.8
Musical and variety shows		6.6
Talk shows		10.4
Sex programs		3.8
Sports	4.7	2.8
Commercials		13.2
Education and children's programs	9.4	
Comedy	15.1	
Detective and western	11.3	
Religious shows	8.5	
Ethnic shows	6.6	
News and weather	8.5	
Don't know	25.4	44.3

Table 6:2

REASONS GIVEN FOR TV PROGRAM CHANGES

Addition	%	Deletion	%
To help the people	23.5		
Just like	17.9	Don't like	61.3
To make people happy	14.2	Unsuitable for children	0.9
To help race relations	5.7	Other reasons	10.4
Dislike present shows	1.9	Don't know	27.4
Don't know	36.8		

Table 6:3

NEWSPAPER CONTENT DELETION AND ADDITION
AS DESIRED BY RESPONDENTS WHEN AND IF
THEY WERE NEWSPAPER EDITORS

Content Addition	%	Content Deletion	%
Good, solid news	15.1	Violence	4.7
World news	1.9	Comics	1.9
Local news	10.4	Financial page	7.5
Religious news	4.7	Nothing	11.3
Black news	3.8	Society page	15.1
Chicano news	2.8	Crossword puzzle	.9
Sports	.9	Sports	23.6
No addition	9.4		
Don't know	50.9	Don't know	34.9

Table 6:4

Reasons Given For Newspaper Content Change

	Addition (%)		Deletion (%)
Need more different types of news	21.7	Just don't like	45.3
Just like	6.6	Repetitious	5.7
More ethnic coverage	4.7		
No reason	67.0	No reason	49.0

Table 6:5

RADIO PROGRAM DELETION AND ADDITION
AS DESIRED BY RESPONDENTS WHEN AND
IF THEY WERE RADIO STATION MANAGERS

Program Addition (%)		Program Deletion (%)	
More music	36.8	Country music	8.5
Religious programs	9.4	Talk show	17.0
More news	5.7	Modern music	10.4
Soul program	6.6	Nothing	5.7
Nothing	2.8	Commercials	13.2
Sports	2.8	No answer	21.7
Don't know	35.9	Don't know	23.5

Table 6:6
MAGAZINE CONTENT DELETION AND ADDITION
AS DESIRED BY RESPONDENTS WHEN AND IF
THEY WERE MAGAZINE EDITORS

Content Addition	(%)	Content Deletion	(%)
Religion	1.9	Sex	11.3
Pictures	3.8	Sports	1.9
Race stories	2.8	Nothing	11.3
Sports	1.9	Letters to the editor	.9
True stories	6.6	Ads	12.3
Nothing	10.4		
Features	3.8		
Don't know, no opinion	68.8	Don't know, no opinion	62.3

VII. Knowledge About Government Agencies

Extent of knowledge about government agencies, which in one way or another was related to communication exposure, might be relevant to the degree of motivation, since information-seeking behavior is generally motivated or actuated by exposure, as indicated in many diffusion studies. Respondents were asked whether they had heard about the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO), the Small Business Administration (SBA), the Job Training Corps (JTC), and other government agencies which might be helpful in their careers, jobs, businesses or enterprises.

The majority of the respondents had heard about OEO, SBA, and JTC, mostly from mass communications media; however, only about 6.5% to 8.5% of the respondents took some action upon what they had heard, mostly to seek loans or assistance (Table 7:1). However, there were numerous other government agencies which respondents failed to mention at all. Why knowledge about these organizations was not translated into some constructive action could not be ascertained with available data; very probably, the respondents could not relate these agencies to their lives, careers, jobs, or businesses.

In the analyses of variance for OEO, SBA, and JTC, no significant ethnic or sex difference was found, except the main effect of race in the ANOVA for SBA, of which the affluent whites were more knowledgeable; therefore, no ANOVAs for these three agencies were included. The affluent whites were the least in need of such information, but as shown in the analysis of variance (Table 7:2), for other government agencies in one way or another helpful to respondents, they were considerably more knowledgeable as compared with other groups under examination.

Knowledge about governmental agencies was very low indeed among the black, Chicano, and white. The governmental agencies that might be mentioned were local Health, Education and Welfare Office, Agriculture Department, Labor Department, in addition to the Office of Economic Opportunity, the Small Business Administration, and the Job Training Corps. Generally, they had heard about such offices, but had not known what functions and services the organizations offered, nor had they approached any of them for help in the solution of their problems.

The significant main effect of race in Table 7:3 can be directly attributed to the knowledge of the affluent whites. The significance was found beyond the .001 level. The irony of the situation is that those most in need of governmental assistance generally were those who were least knowledgeable about what assistance was available.

Table 7:1

Knowledge About Government Agencies
And Its Utilization

Government Agency	Heard About	%	Source: (a) mass (b) private	%	Did Something About It	%	What (Got Loan or Help)	%
	Yes	46.2	(a)	43.4	Yes	6.6		3.8
OEO	No	42.5	(b)	5.7	No	44.7		
	Don't Recall	11.3		50.9	No Answer	48.7		
	Yes	67.0	(a)	38.7	Yes	7.5		5.7
SBA	No	29.2	(b)	26.4	No	59.4		
	Don't Recall	3.8		34.9	No Answer	32.1		
	Yes	74.5	(a)	48.1	Yes	8.5		5.6
JTC	No	21.7	(b)	25.5	No	64.2		
	Don't Recall	3.8		26.4	No Answer	27.1		
Other	Yes	29.2	(a)	1.9	Yes	0.0		0.0
Government	No	65.1	(b)	1.9	No	2.8		
Agencies	Don't Recall	4.7		96.2	No Answer	97.2		

Table 7:2

Analysis of Variance of Knowledge About Government Agencies Helpful to Respondents' Jobs, Businesses or Careers*

Source of Variance	M. S.	df	F	P
Race (A)	1.323	3	6.774	.0005
Sex (B)	.251	1	1.284	
AB	.054	3	.278	
Within	.195	114		
Total	.220	121		

* Reversed Scores

Table 7:3

Multiple Comparisons on Knowledge of Government Agencies By Race

Race	Black	Chicano	White	Affluent White	
Means	1.73 **	1.78 **	1.88 **	1.37	Mean 1.37

** $p < .01$

VIII. Motivation and Communication Behavior

The lack of achievement motivation (N Ach) in the blacks, according to McClelland (1961) was attributable to the matricentric structure of the black family and also to "less desirable" child-rearing practices that originated in slavery. Negro slaves reared their children in such a way as to produce obedience and responsibility, but not N Ach. Another motivation scholar, Atkinson, is of the opinion that the achievement motive disposition might be conceived of as a capacity for taking pride in accomplishment when success at one or another activity is attained (Atkinson, 1964, p. 241). Both McClelland and Atkinson seem to contend that the need to achieve is an acquired, relatively stable, and general feature of personality that impels individuals to strive for success (Katz, 1967). However, the need to achieve might not be acquired, but an innate desire conditioned by a host of complex factors.

Studies of motivation are generally measurements of fantasy elicited by TAT pictures and similar stimuli (Katz, 1967). Fantasy might very well be what Hoppe expressed in 1930 as the ideal goal as contrasted to realistic goal (Nuttin, Fraisse & Meili, 1968, p. 23). It stands to reason that aspiration in terms of fantasy should have no ethnic differences; in fact, in the Coleman survey (Coleman, et al, 1966), the black students were found to have higher levels of academic motivation, interest, and aspiration than had whites, and they studied more outside school than any other ethnic group except the Oriental Americans.

The motivational factor designated in this study, aspiration for various elected offices, can be categorized as fantasy. Fantasy,

according to Klinger (1966, pp. 294-295) reflects relatively more fully the dominant models and modes of behavior, and a more enduring set of dispositions learned over a long period of reinforcement. It might very well be what Feather (1963) defines as the "hope motivation." Aspiration for elected offices, appetite for work, desire to earn, and better education for children, thus, should be indicative of the motivational difference, if any, among ethnic groups. The impressive body of achievement motivation studies delineating the lack of, or the lower levels of, achievement motivation among certain groups, might be due to two factors, i.e., cultural deprivation and cultural conflict, as summarized by Katz (1967).

At this stage, it is profitable to take a deep look at the relation between aspiration and media behavior. Media behavior may be defined as activities in terms of exposure to or use of mass communications media. There seems to be little question that media use was positively related to socialization processes, as briefly expounded in the previous section. Media use as motivated by the information-seeking behavior presumably is heightened by constant and continuous exposure to media.

Correlation Between Motivation and Media Behavior

Data presented so far supported the emergence of an obvious pattern, i.e., no null hypotheses on motivation, exposure, and behavior could be destroyed with evidence at hand. An almost exhaustive series of multiple correlation and regression analyses were then performed to ascertain the interrelationship between a set of motivation variables, and a set of media behavior variables. Less than one-tenth of the

variables and factors which were considered relevant to this report were discussed.

Included were demographic variables of sex, age, marital status, education, race, and income; motivation variables of hours willing to work, amounts of desired earnings, and education attainment expected of children; media behavior variables such as television viewing, newspaper reading, radio listening, and magazine reading; and aspiration variables for elected offices. As can be seen from intercorrelation matrix (Tables 8:1, 8:1a, and 8:1b), no pairwise correlation was very high (in order for any correlation coefficient to be significant, it must exceed .1946 for the .05 level, and .2540 for the .01 level of significance, with df of 120 /DuBois, 1965, p. 493). The motivational variables were simply powerless to predict any media behavior or vice versa. Only within each set of motivational aspiration, and media variables were there some significant correlation coefficients, for example, aspiration for presidency was correlated with aspiration for senator, congressman, governor, and state senator. Not even the intramedia behavior, for example, newspaper reading during weekends and newspaper reading during weekdays were highly correlated.

Motivation

The motivation variables, "hours willing to work," "like to earn," and "expected educational level to be attained by children," were used as dependent variables in the stepwise multiple regression analysis. As Table 8:2 clearly demonstrates, the desire to work or to earn was hardly attributable to any of the media practices. The F-test for each step of the regression analysis for the "hours willing to work"

and "like to earn" was not significant for every media behavior.

In "education for children," newspaper reading with a multiple R of .23 yielded an F-ratio of 7.236 with df 1/128, significant beyond the .01 level. Newspaper reading during weekends and weekdays showed an F-ratio significant beyond the .05 level. No other media behavior, such as television watching, radio listening, or magazine reading, contributed in any appreciable degree to the desire for the attainment of better education for children. Newspaper reading was found to have contributed significantly to the motivation for children to attain a better education; the variance attributable to newspaper reading was slightly more than 5%.

Aspiration for Elected Offices

Aspiration for elected offices, as expounded previously, should be a powerful indicator of motivation; but the majority of respondents had no desire for such offices. In the intercorrelation tables (Tables 8:1, 8:1a and 8:1b) there was hardly any significant correlation between such aspirations and other demographic variables. Stepwise regression analyses were carried out to ascertain the relationship between aspiration for elected offices and a few selected demographic variables, i.e., sex, income, age, and education; in addition to the motivational variables of "willingness to work," "like to earn," and "education for children."

Findings as summarized in the summary table (Table 8:3) indicate the near impotence of demographic variables, as well as motivational

variables, in predicting aspiration for elected offices. Although some significance in F tests was shown, it can be generally concluded that aspiration for elected offices was in no way determined by sex, income, education, or age; nor was it governed in any way by the willingness to work long hours, the desire for a better education for children, or expectations of increased earnings, therefore tables of regression analysis for these variables were omitted. As only a very small proportion of the respondents desired elective offices, it is quite understandable that any relation between aspiration for elected offices and motivation as determined by willingness to work long hours, or a desire for better education for children, was absent.

The highest percentage of variance (R^2) attributable to these three motivational variables, "work," "earnings," and "education for children," was .0259, with the F ratio of 3.375, which was significant at .10, hardly establishing any one of these as a strong criterion for the measurement of aspiration for the elected office; no regressional analysis table for these three was included. The very absence of any significant relations seemed to indicate that some other criteria might exist, or that aspiration was hardly predictable by the methods employed in this study.

Demographic variables of income and age showed no significance in the F tests as the Rs were extremely low; only sex and education of respondents demonstrated to a certain extent significant contribution to the variance in the aspiration for elected offices of state

senator, congressman and mayor, all at the local level, as contrasted to the U. S. presidency, U. S. Senatorial seats, and state governorship. As shown in the "increase in R^2" (Table 8:3), the variance attributable to those elected offices significant beyond the .05 level was rather low; the highest was .066.

With race as the dependent variable, again no significant F-ratio was found, as was also indicated in the intercorrelation table (Tables 8:1, 8:1a, and 8:1b), therefore, no regression analysis table was included.

Summary

Evidence presented so far gave no credence to the thesis of either McClelland or Atkinson that the blacks were in need of motivation. The complete absence of any significant racial difference in motivation and aspiration for elected offices seems to indicate that motivation, in the fantasy stage at least, observes no ethnic demarcation. The more devastating, but not surprising, findings of extremely low correlations between motivational, aspirational and media behavioral variables can be explained in terms of the pervasive diffusion of information disseminated by various media. When access to basic information as provided by media is almost universal, as media have already reached the saturation point, media activities cease to be differentiable in aspiration, motivation, or socialization. Demographic variables were powerless to predict media use, as was found by Greenberg and Kumata (1968); and almost useless in determining motivation and aspiration. There is no supportive evidence for the thesis of those who contend that the blacks or Chicanos lack motivation or aspiration.

Table 8:1

Intercorrelation: Motivation, Aspiration
And Media Behavior

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Sex		265	182	-133	-001	085	-216	-045	-100	-099
2. Age			176	-012	277	-093	-162	-116	081	110
3. Marital status				-121	008	-044	-033	-115	143	-119
4. Education					333	-045	018	016	077	-146
5. Income						-059	-024	-254	153	195
6. Hours willing to work							-010	008	163	-063
7. Likes to earn								044	-130	-048
8. Education for children									108	-074
9. TV weekday										-010
10. TV weekend										

Table 8:1a

Intercorrelation: Motivation, Aspiration,
And Media Behavior (continued)

	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Sex	145	125	106	-126	-153	094	128	181	010	011
2. Age	025	-076	-004	-117	-099	178	222	213	110	122
3. Marital status	233	-001	-021	-177	-211	-104	003	085	163	-084
4. Education	-053	159	-010	076	-095	030	028	-128	-157	-001
5. Income	-274	-045	-028	-142	-147	164	197	115	083	311
6. Hours willing to work	-033	005	017	-071	066	-009	039	106	-081	-042
7. Likes to earn	-020	102	134	088	059	-056	-000	056	044	038
8. Education for children	232	053	093	132	097	004	-035	027	-082	-095
9. TV weekday	-043	-128	-053	087	178	090	071	213	-003	-067
10. TV weekend	-291	-314	-310	048	129	-156	-117	157	380	207
11. Newspaper reading		-088	-080	-014	-135	101	-059	137	-093	-114
12. Newspaper subscription			814	007	-108	153	223	-200	-214	-170
13. Newspaper weekday				-118	-148	141	268	-157	-191	-091
14. Newspaper weekend					670	-108	-074	011	-042	-011
15. Radio weekday						-086	-030	069	006	008
16. Radio weekend							666	081	-237	-042
17. Magazine weekday								076	-217	005
18. Magazine weekend									243	139
19. OEO										319
20. SBA										

Table 8:1b

Intercorrelation: Motivation, Aspiration, And Media Behavior (concluded)

	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
1. Sex	008	-055	-069	011	-045	023	-029	-201
2. Age	-017	108	-064	081	-030	-035	-085	-067
3. Marital status	-093	-144	189	110	132	055	057	-033
4. Education	061	156	004	-029	011	-056	048	156
5. Income	-072	093	-048	-049	-029	-070	-036	-070
6. Hours willing to work	004	024	-111	004	-038	095	075	-051
7. Likes to earn	015	215	115	073	083	055	-017	116
8. Education for children	182	040	-002	161	114	048	040	113
9. TV weekday	-112	002	-057	021	-002	031	046	102
10. TV weekend	184	-195	-151	-032	-062	-035	-055	-166
11. Newspaper reading	081	-208	014	080	071	024	-029	012
12. Newspaper subscription	-236	242	-037	-140	-096	-150	-063	-018
13. Newspaper weekday	-217	283	019	-098	-047	-018	050	-104
14. Newspaper weekend	091	-055	-037	-011	020	-101	-024	027
15. Radio weekday	036	-158	-049	078	-015	004	042	138
16. Radio weekend	-096	145	-123	-051	-062	-046	-007	050
17. Magazine weekday	-158	208	-053	-043	-032	-074	006	038
18. Magazine weekend	171	032	068	044	050	023	-074	-112
19. OEO	189	-188	106	107	-036	245	-058	028
20. SBA	333	048	049	009	023	073	-047	-074
21. JTC		-051	074	142	126	091	111	169
22. Other government agencies			-069	019	029	-120	-033	-073
23. Race				210	534	309	524	351
24. President					636	475	229	177
25. Senator						367	639	169
26. Congressman							288	195
27. Governor								324
28. State senator								

Table 8:2

Summary Table of Stepwise Multiple Regression
Analysis of Motivation with Media Behavior Variables

"Hours Willing to Work" as the Motivation Dependent Variable

Media Variable Entered	Multiple R	R^2	Increase in R^2	F
TV Watching (weekday)	0.1628	0.0265	0.0265	3.457 n.s.
Newspaper reading weekend	0.1839	0.0338	0.0073	2.204 n.s.
Radio weekday	0.2236	0.0500	0.0162	2.192 n.s.
TV Watching (weekend)	0.2358	0.0556	0.0056	1.826 n.s.
Magazine weekend	0.2486	0.0618	0.0062	1.620 n.s.
Radio weekend	0.2532	0.0641	0.0023	1.343 n.s.
Magazine weekday	0.2574	0.0663	0.0021	1.226 n.s.
Newspaper reading	0.2598	0.0675	0.0013	1.086 n.s.
Newspaper subscription	0.2612	0.0682	0.0007	0.968 n.s.
Newspaper reading weekday	0.2631	0.0692	0.0010	0.878 n.s.

"Like to Earn" as the Motivation Dependent Variable

Magazine weekend	0.1556	0.0242	0.0242	3.150 n.s.
Newspaper weekday	0.1910	0.0365	0.0123	2.386 n.s.
Newspaper weekend	0.2172	0.0472	0.0107	2.063 n.s.
TV weekday	0.2416	0.0584	0.0112	1.921 n.s.
Newspaper subscription	0.2502	0.0626	0.0042	1.642 n.s.
Radio weekend	0.2528	0.0639	0.0013	1.388 n.s.
Radio weekday	0.2548	0.0649	0.0010	1.200 n.s.
Magazine weekday	0.2557	0.0654	0.0004	1.049 n.s.
Newspaper reading	0.2561	0.0656	0.0002	0.928 n.s.

"Education for Children" as the Motivation Dependent Variable

Newspaper reading	0.2322	0.0539	0.0539	7.236 **
Newspaper weekend	0.2689	0.0723	0.0184	4.909 *
Newspaper weekday	0.2983	0.0890	0.0167	4.069 *
TV weekday	0.3187	0.1016	0.0126	3.505 n.s.
Magazine weekday	0.3238	0.1048	0.0032	2.880 n.s.
Radio weekday	0.3277	0.1074	0.0026	2.447 n.s.
TV weekends	0.3294	0.1085	0.0011	2.104 n.s.
Newspaper subscription	0.3306	0.1093	0.0008	1.841 n.s.
Magazine weekend	0.3310	0.1096	0.0003	1.627 n.s.
Radio weekend	0.3312	0.1097	0.0001	1.454 n.s.

df:128

* $P < .05$
** $P < .01$
n.s. - not significant

Table 8:3

Summary Table of Stepwise Multiple Regression
Analysis of Sex and Education with Aspiration for Elected Offices

Media Variable Entered	Multiple R	R^2	Increase in R^2	F	
Sex as the Motivation Dependent Variable					
State senator	0.2008	0.0403	0.0403	5.338	*
Congressman	0.2105	0.0443	0.0040	2.920	n.s.
Mayor	0.2184	0.0477	0.0034	2.087	n.s.
Governor	0.2223	0.0494	0.0017	1.611	n.s.
Senator	0.2309	0.0533	0.0039	1.385	n.s.
President	0.2432	0.0591	0.0058	1.278	n.s.
Congressman	0.2440	0.0595	0.0004	1.094	n.s.
Education as the Motivation Dependent Variable					
Mayor	0.2561	0.0656	0.0656	8.915	**
Congressman	0.2875	0.0827	0.0171	5.676	*
State senator	0.2914	0.0849	0.0023	3.866	n.s.
Governor	0.2947	0.0868	0.0019		n.s.
President	0.2956	0.0874	0.0005		n.s.
Senator	0.2971	0.0882	0.0009		n.s.
Congressman	0.2981	0.0889	0.0006		n.s.

* $P < .05$ df:128
** $P < .01$
n.s. - not significant

IX. Conclusion

Attempting to evaluate generally motivation and communication behavioral patterns of the minorities and to familiarize students with general survey procedure, an extensive survey was carried out in a typical southwest U. S. city with the purpose of ascertaining motivation, aspiration, media behavior, and their interactions, particularly of the minority groups. Four ethnic groups were included in the examination: blacks, Chicanos, whites, and affluent whites; the last two were of socio-economic differences only.

Aspiration variables were desire for elected offices, ranging from the U. S. Presidency to city councilman. No significant ethnic nor SES difference was found in aspiration for elected offices; generally all groups were equally lacking in ambition for such responsibility; women were as unmotivated as the men with respect to elective offices. Motivational variables, of which only three were examined, were: "hours willing to work," "like to earn," and desire for children's educational attainment. Again, no significant racial and sex differences were found, except in parental desire for the children's educational attainment. The affluent white parents seemed to have a much higher level of expectation, and the Chicanos lower expectations for their children's education. Blacks, Chicanos, and less affluent whites desired more or less the same level of earnings, and were willing to work more than conventional hours to attain their objectives. However, their aspirations and motivation were in no way determined by mass communication behavior; correlational coefficients between any of the

aspirational and motivational variables with communication behavior were uniformly low, and the F-tests in the regressional analysis for either set of variables with communication behavior showed almost no significant difference.

The failure of demonstrating any significant difference among ethnic groups in their aspiration, motivation, and communication behavior was attributable to the universal presence of mass communications with available redundant channels, particularly when radio was ubiquitous, and television was almost universally possessed.

Local issues concerning an incident in which a black student was killed by a white student, and its aftermath, were also examined. The blacks seemed to have a better grasp of the issues than the whites and Chicanos did. Relevant issues on busing, fair treatment and job discrimination, were also examined. Generally, all races advocated racial tolerance, law and order, better education, better housing, etc.

Media use among respondents seemed to have reached the saturation point; most of the households had multiple radio sets, and color television set ownership was above the national average. Time spent on watching TV, listening to the radio, and reading newspapers and magazines, was about the national average. Television seemed to have gained predominance at the expense of the other media. The blacks were found to spend more time on both television and radio. There were no distinguishable differences between the whites and the Chicanos in media useage.

Interest in news content was also examined. Racial differences were found in the interest in cartoons, movie reviews, women's page, want ads, and news of radio and television programs; however, more pronounced differences were found between sexes in murder stories, sports, cartoons, financial news, and women's pages. Men were significantly more interested in murder stories, sports, and financial news, and also in violence and sex in movies and television programs.

In interpersonal communications, the most-communicated-with was the spouse, followed by relatives and friends. Communication with neighbors was as infrequent as that with lawyers. The most-talked-about topics were money, children, and job.

When respondents assumed the role of news editor or program director, many additions and deletions were advocated, mostly for personal reasons. There was no ethnic or sex difference for the program additions or deletions. To a certain extent, the findings implied that a large proportion of respondents were not entirely satisfied with the programs and newspapers.

Knowledge about government functions was assumed to indicate the effects of communication exposure. Most of the respondents' knowledge about government agencies such as the OEO, SBA, and JTC, was obtained through the mass communications media. However, the knowledge remained at the awareness stage only; only a small proportion of the respondents had made any use of it. Besides these three agencies, all groups except the affluent whites were quite ignorant of other governmental agencies which might be helpful in job, career, business, and welfare.

In a series of extensive correlational and regressional analyses, no evidence to suggest the predictive power of mass communication media behavior for aspiration and motivation was found, nor was any indication of the ethnic differences in aspiration and motivation. McClelland's thesis clearly was not supported. Talcott Parson's theme on the reverse relation between identification and social mobility seems to be thrown into doubt; it has already been refuted by Kuvlesky and Patella (1971).

Demographic variables were as powerless as media behavior in predicting motivation and aspiration.

It is a point of speculation why communication behavior had no predictive power and demonstrated no association with motivation and aspiration. Mass communications media in the United States have long since reached the saturation point, as evidenced by the stabilization in number of newspapers, magazines (which have even decreased to a certain extent), radio and television stations. No segment of American society is deprived of essential news and information. Henceforward, some phenomena can be identified as contributing to the nondifferentiable communication effects upon motivation and aspiration: first, monopoly of access to news is no longer possible in an advanced society, as contrasted to Lerner's findings (1958) in the Middle East; and second, diffusion and dissemination of information is so pervasive that universal accessibility of information is an accomplished feat. Thus, any differences in motivation, as influenced by mass communication, existing among ethnic groups tend to be drastically reduced, if not to vanish entirely.

This paper admittedly raises more questions than answers. Further analysis of data is an on-going process in an attempt to evaluate more extensively many seemingly imponderable questions, and also to lay the foundation for further work in this area.

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